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Organ of the Ohio Teachers' Association.

E. E. WHITE, EDITOR.

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SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

BY WM. SLOCOMB.

In presenting to the public the system of school government embodied in this paper, I deem it proper to say that it is no visionary theory, but the practical result of a long experience in the school-room. Soon after I commenced teaching—more than sixty years since—I became satisfied that corporal punishment in school was, to say the least, often productive of more evil than good, and, hence, I commenced devising plans to avoid it. The one here presented was gradually approached, step by step, and was practiced with entire success, for many years, before it was communicated to others. The plan, in whole or in part, has been adopted by many teachers, and, so far as I have learned, always with satisfactory success. That it is the best system that can be devised, I do not claim, but after the trial of different methods I know of no one equal to it. I only ask that it be tried before it be condemned.

The first important lesson for a teacher to learn, if he would govern his school well, is to *govern himself.* If he fails to do this successfully, how can he hope to govern others? If his pupils discover that he is given to fault-finding and impatience, that little annoyances disturb his equanimity, the result will be to lessen their respect for him, and to diminish their efforts to please and obey him. But if they see that he is always calm and collected—that he is disturbed only when serious offenses are the cause—the effect will be just the reverse. I am aware of the difficulty of always practicing what I recommend; but this does not lessen its importance.

In the next place, the teacher should feel the responsibility of his station. To train the young mind, to prepare a youth to act well his part in life, is vastly more important than many teachers are aware of. To store the young mind with useful knowledge, is not the whole of the teacher's duty. He should keep in mind that he is dealing with those who, in a few years, will become actors on the stage of life, and, to an extent, give character to the society in which they are called to move. That persons in comparatively obscure stations exert no influence over others, is erroneous. All have more or less influence, and this influence receives its character in the school-room to a much greater extent than many imagine. Hence the teacher should feel that he is responsible, not to his employers only, but to the public generally; for the influence of his pupils will be publicly felt long after he has gone to the grave. Nor does it stop here. It extends beyond the confines of time, and aids in fixing the destinies of immortal souls in a future world. Teachers should feel that they are dealing with beings who are to live forever. If I am correct in this position, then it is clearly the teacher's duty to give his pupils such moral instruction as will best guard them from evil courses. But if it is the teacher's duty to give his pupils moral instruction, then that instruction should be drawn from the best code within his reach. The Bible contains the best code of moral instruction known to man, and it should have a place in our schools. I am aware that some teachers, as well as some parents, object to the use of the Bible in school. I would advise such to lay aside this paper and proceed no further; for on the principles taught in that sacred volume, my whole system of school-government is based. Take from me the influence which I derive from that source, and I give up the argument, and concede that other influences than those I now depend upon, must be resorted to, to restrain the wayward habits and angry passions of youth.

That teachers should not inculcate *sectarian* sentiments in school, I readily admit; but they certainly may and should teach the great leading truths found in the Bible. These truths teach the young to reverence their parents; to do to others as they would that others should do to them; to refrain from all immorality, as lying, cheating, stealing, etc.; to avoid all profane and other improper language; in short, to refrain from whatever is wrong. They teach that God is ever present, noticing all our actions, and that He will hereafter call us to an account therefor. All these duties and sentiments are clearly taught in the Bible, and in a better form than can be found in any other book.

Before leaving this point, I wish to say a few words on devotional exercises in school. Let the duties of each day be begun and closed by reading a few verses judiciously selected from the Bible. Let this be followed by a short prayer for divine direction. If the teacher is too diffident to offer extempore prayer, let him repeat the Lord's Prayer in concert with his pupils. Such exercises will do more to induce a feeling of reverence and respect in his pupils than all the hickory and birch ever wielded. To induce a respectful attention to the exercise, let the pupils be taught that prayer is a high privilege as well as a duty; let them bow the head instead of rising, and all will be pleasant and profitable.

I regard it important that scholars have not a *distant*, but a *present* motive for obedience and diligence—one constantly operating upon the mind. It will be seen that this element enters largely into my system of government which I will now sketch in as brief a manner as possible.

It was a rule in my school that all the pupils should be in their seats when I entered the room, ready for the opening exercise. All who were thus punctual, both morning and afternoon, received a little card or ticket, with some suitable motto printed on it. These tickets were of two colors, red and white. The red indicated both punctual attendance and good behavior; the white an opposite school character. Here was the first step in discipline. When any violation of the rules of the school occurred, instead of calling up the offender to give an account of his conduct, I simply took from him the red ticket and gave him a white one in place of it. These tickets were taken in at the close of each week, and credited to the holders of them in a little book, thus:

TICKET REGISTER.

John Scott...	Bad...		1			1		2		1		
	Good..	5	4	5	5	4	5	3	5	4	5	
Mary Hall...	Bad...											
	Good..	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	
Sarah Cole...	Bad...			1					1			Both redeemed.
	Good..	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	

As my plan contemplated, as far as possible, making the wrong doing of scholars and their punishment therefor conducive to their own good, the following conditions were annexed: As a single act did not, in all cases, indicate character, if only one bad ticket, as they were usually called, was received in the whole term, it should not appear against him on the general exhibition sheet described below. A second could be redeemed by subsequent good conduct and perfect lessons during three or four days, according to the age and standing of the pupil. A third could be redeemed by about double that penalty. Beyond that there was no remedy. The cases were rare in which scholars would not make great efforts to redeem such tickets. If a scholar was a few minutes late, and could show that his tardiness was unavoidable, he received his ticket if he was generally punctual. The influence of this system was perfectly wonderful. I have taught weeks without giving out a single "bad ticket." The tickets of a large school may be taken in quickly, by one of the scholars receiving them and reporting to the teacher, who enters them in his book, as above described.

The next step in my plan was a record of every recitation under three heads: *Perfect*, *Good*, and *Imperfect*. A recitation was marked "perfect" if it was without any failure; "good," if only one or two questions were missed, according to the age and standing of the pupil; and "imperfect," if more than one or two failures occurred. This record may be kept in a little book prepared for the purpose, as seen below, a single mark being made against the pupil's name under the appropriate head:

RECITATIONS IN ANY BRANCH TAUGHT.

	PERFECT.	GOOD.	IMPERFECT.
James Smith	11111 11111 11111 11111 11111......	11111 11.........	11
Mary Hall....	11111 11111 11111 11111 11111 111	111..................	
John Pratt..	11111 11111 11111 11111................	11111 11111 1.	111

After all but little good would result from keeping the above accounts, if no further use was made of them. But to carry out the plan, the whole was transferred, at the close of the term, to a large sheet, called the "GENERAL EXHIBITION SHEET," by which the character and standing of each scholar for the whole term was presented in a single line. This was done as here shown:

GENERAL EXHIBIT FOR THE TERM ENDING ———, 186—.

	Days in Term.	TICKETS		GRAMMAR			ARITHM'TIC			GEOGR'PHY			READING.			REMARKS.
		Good.	Bad.	Perfect.	Good.	Imperfect.	Perfect.	Good.	Imperfect.	Perfect.	Good.	Imperfect.	Perfect.	Good.	Imperfect.	
John Stone...	60	60	...	44	10	6	50	10	...	45	12	3	41	11	9	....
SamuelJones	58	56	2	...	...	...	47	11	2	46	10	...	36	18	6	.... [health.
James Smith	50	46	...	44	6	2	46	4	...	...	...	....	20	24	6	Detained by ill
Sarah Smith	60	60	...	52	8	...	44	10	6	46	10	4	38	14	8	............[first day.
Mary Pratt..	46	44	2	34	10	2	38	8	...	36	9	5	40	8	4	Did not commence
Susan Sharp	54	54	...	50	4	...	48	3	1	48	6	....	32	4	4	Good but irregular.

If more or other studies were taught, they could be easily added. It will be observed that in cases in which scholars did not attend to all the branches taught, the space opposite the name is left blank. This sheet, which should be large, was posted up in a conspicuous place in the school-room on the day of the public examination. By a little attention, the object of the sheet will be readily understood. When it is known that such an exhibition will be publicly made at the close of the term, it will prompt scholars, who have a spark of ambition, to make strenuous efforts, to stand fair on the sheet. But, after all, little good would result from such exhibition, if none were present to see and examine it. Hence the teacher should make special efforts to induce a large attendance of the patrons and friends of the school. Let the teacher invite a few gentlemen, who take an interest in the education of youth, to be present and make a few remarks at the close of the exercise, and great good will result therefrom.

But I may be asked if I have never found cases, in which the plan failed to produce the desired effect; if so, what would I then recommend. I answer that I have met with such cases, but they have been rare. I had none during several of the last years of my teaching. But I will answer the second question. If the subject be a stubborn, don't-care sort of a boy, destitute alike of both pride and shame and with little or no conscience, my course would be *isolation*. Let the offender be seated by himself, where he can have no intercourse with other scholars, near the teacher's desk if convenient, and, in some cases, it may be found needful to place him with his back to the school. Let him there recite his lesson, in turn with other members of his class; permit him to have no recess *with* the other scholars; keep him back, both at noon and evening, till the scholars are well on their way to their homes. Meantime kindly say to him that you greatly regret the necessity of pursuing such a course with him, and just as soon as he will promise reformation, it will afford you much pleasure to grant him all the privileges of other scholars, and to aid him in the prosecution of his studies; but, till then, he will not be permitted to associate with the good scholars, lest they be contaminated by his influence and example. I have never known an instance in which a boy would not yield in two days or less; nor have I ever heard of a case where the experiment has been tried by other teachers.

If the offender be of a mild temperament, disposed generally to obey all the rules of the school, then a different course should be pursued. Suppose it be a young Miss, one who is generally quiet and orderly, but has contracted the habit of falsehood, so that no dependence can be placed on her word. In such cases I have found an appeal to the Bible to be efficacious in producing a reformation. Let the members of the class to which she belongs be required to find texts in the Bible that either justify or condemn the practice of lying, to be read at an appointed time to the offender—not perhaps before the whole school, but with the class only. It is surprising to see what an amount of testimony will be found by a few young pupils against that or any other bad habit. After the reading, the teacher should kindly say to the offender, you see how this sin is regarded by that authority by which we should regulate all our conduct. The practice is ruinous to those who indulge in it, and I feel it a duty for your sake to correct it; but wish to accomplish the object in as mild a manner as possible, and hope and believe that you are now ready to promise a reformation,—which is sure to be done. The teacher may now appeal to the class to forgive the offender, which they will not fail to do. He may then say to them that forgiveness means an entire restoration to favor; that they should never speak of the case to others. The teacher should show, by his example, that he means what he says to others in the matter. I have never known a treatment, something as above stated, fail to produce the desired effect.

When personal difficulties occur between scholars, and complaint is made to the teacher, it will be found to be a good way to stop the complaining at once, and send the parties away by themselves to settle their difficulty, admonishing them that if they do that and return with friendly feelings, all will be well;

if not, then an investigation must be made, which may result in causing some punishment to both parties. They will not fail to settle their differences satisfactorily.

It will be seen by the foregoing statements, that I rely mainly on two principal points for keeping good order in school, viz: (1) a *motive* for punctuality, diligence, and good conduct, constantly operating upon the mind of the pupils—not a distant but a *present* one; and (2) as far as possible, the cultivation of a feeling of accountability, or, in other words, a high moral sense. These, accompanied by uniform acts of kindness on the part of the teacher, will go far to induce feelings of love and respect on the part of the pupils.

"Let teachers ever keep in mind,
The key that the young heart unlocks,
Is always on the inside found,
And only mov'd by hand of love;
Hence outward applications, all,
Tend to destroy the teacher's power
With friendly hand that key to reach."

Being "*apt to teach*," able to communicate in language that will be readily understood by the pupil, is important, without which the teacher lacks an essential qualification. It is important, also, that he be able to *interest* his pupils. This I think can be done even in teaching English grammar, usually regarded by beginners as *a very dry study*. But, if I mistake not, the dryness is more frequently found in the teacher's head than in any thing connected with that branch of study. But the manner of teaching different branches, though important, is not the present subject of discussion.

One reason why many teachers fail to accomplish much good in teaching, may be found in the fact that they do not engage in the business as a profession, but for obtaining the means of pursuing some other calling. I do not condemn this practice, but may be allowed to say that such persons can not be expected to feel the same interest, nor disposed to furnish themselves with the needful books and apparatus, as those who engage in the work with the purpose of pursuing it permanently.

I have already extended my remarks much beyond what I contemplated when I commenced. I will therefore close by a word of advice to young teachers: When you find that you lack the faculty of communicating to your pupils what perhaps you may well understand yourself, or when you find that *fear*, not *love*, must induce obedience in your school, and therefore find it necessary to resort to harsh means to preserve good order, then let me advise that you abandon the business, and resort to some other means of earning your bread.

I may be told that my theory of school government is not yet fairly tested; that many teachers still find it necessary to resort to the rod to secure obedience. In reply, permit me to say, that our theory of civil government is also comparatively new. I can well remember the time when the *whipping-post*, the *pillory*, and the *stocks* were to be seen near our court-houses; when *cropping* and even *branding* were resorted to as punishment for offenses. But I am most happy to add, that I have lived to see the day when all such modes of punishment are regarded as relics of barbarism; and I firmly believe that the time is not far distant when corporal punishment in schools will find a place in the same category.

NOTES ON TEACHING NATURAL SCIENCE.

NO. II. METHODS OF WEIGHING.

It is proposed in this to indicate several methods for attaining quite accurate results in weighing by the use of humble appliances. The utility of the exercise, as a means of teaching Natural Philosophy, may be increased by showing its relation to elasticity, gravity, levers, etc.

I. In the first place, a set of standard weights must be bought or borrowed. If the latter, proceed at once to make a set with as much elaboration as time will permit. Of ordinary materials, brass is the best, lead the easiest wrought. For the heavier pieces, which will not need to exceed one pound, very shapely weights may be made by soldering together the old fashioned copper cents, or English pennies, and filing off the excess. As weights are often required in experiments where scale pans are not available, each of the larger should have a small hook of bent brass wire attached. When made, they must be compared with the utmost nicety with the standard on the best balance that can be found in the vicinity, because a slight variation here will multiply itself indefinitely when the weights are brought into actual use. It is, however, of even greater importance that the subdivisions agree perfectly among themselves; *e. g.*, that several smaller taken together exactly equal one of the larger representing their sum, and that each part exactly equals the fraction represented; as, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, etc. In Physics, it is rarely required to know the absolute weight of any thing by the standard of the Government, inasmuch as correct inferences can be drawn if the relative weights of the substances used can be accurately ascertained. It follows from this, that tarnished weights are not materially impaired if the relative proportions are maintained. For the smaller pieces, take a very thin and narrow strip of brass or zinc weighing exactly an ounce, and divide it into aliquot parts by measuring off the length required. As grains are too small for convenient handling, make the smaller equal 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10 grains. Brass wire may be substituted for the strip with great advantage in the smaller weights, as the subdivisions may be more accurately made. Each piece should be carefully marked, and the whole kept in a box. It is recommended that the decimal system be used, and that the weights beyond the units increase by tens of grains or grammes. A gramme suite is as easily made as a grain suite, if we bear in mind that the unit is equal to 15.434 grains. In expensive sets, the larger pieces are made of brass gilded, and the smaller, of platinum.

II. Scales whose action depends on the elasticity of the material, vary exceedingly as regards reliability with the nature of the substance used, and are accurate only within certain limits of weight, and of time during which they are in service. The simplest scale consists of a tapering rod fixed at one end, and having a scale pan attached to the other end, which moves along a graduated arc. When the scale pan is not loaded, the rod should be horizontal. The arc is graduated by addding in succession small weights, and noting the amount of deviation for each addition. If two such rods are joined together at one end, then we may attach at the other ends—on the lower rod, the scale pan; on the upper, a ring to serve as handle, and the index extending below so that the lower rod may play along its arc, graduated by successive trials. The scale pans may be made of the cover of a blacking box, suspended by stout twine or wire. Instead of a rod, we may use a metallic wire coiled about a small cylinder, as a lead pencil, so as to form a spiral. Bend one end in the form of a large ring to serve as a handle, and the other into the shape of a hook: suspend the spiral inside of a glass tube (a broken test tube may be made to answer the purpose), and paste a strip of paper along the side of the tube. Hang a scale pan to the hook, and the spring balance is ready for graduation by trials with known weights as before. The material may be any thing possessing sufficient rigidity, flexibility, and elasticity. The more suitable the material, the longer will the scale remain useful: the greater the flexibility, the more delicate the weighings. The flexibility is easily increased by diminishing the diameter of the rod or wire. If this exercise is given to a class, it is desirable that a variety of materials be used so as to determine experimentally the capabilities of each. Thus steel and brass are good; copper and lead, bad for either rods or spirals. Hickory and cedar will answer for the rods. Well tempered piano wires of different sizes will afford an excellent suite of varying sensitiveness. A variety of the spiral balance is easily made by dropping inside a stout test tube a coil of wire, whose length is such that while one end rests on the bottom of the tube, the other end, drawn out straight, may extend a few inches above the mouth of the tube. Attach a small platform to the tip of the wire, and graduate the scale on the straight part.

By using different materials of the same size in any form of these spring balances, we may easily determine the relative flexibility of the various substances by simply noting how much they respectively yield to the same stretching weight. Rude as these contrivances may seem, they are competent to produce first rate results if sufficient care is taken in graduating them. The exercise of a little ingenuity and skill in finishing the work, will render them not unattractive in appearance.

III. Any lever of the first class may be used as a balance. Whatever the form, certain precautions are to be taken: The beam should be as light as possible, strong, and inflexible; the friction at the fulcrum should be diminished by making the pivots, and the supporters of some hard material; the length of either arm should not be excessive in comparison with the weight.

The principle of the balance with equal arms can be shown by driving a knitting-needle lengthwise through the centre of a large cork to serve as the beam, then driving half a knitting-needle to serve as axis through the cork at right angles to the other, and supporting its ends on two goblets; finally driving another half knitting-needle at right angles to the other two to serve as counterpoise. By pushing this last needle up and down the centre of gravity of the machine is altered at pleasure, and its effect on the equilibrium of the balance is easily shown.

In the ordinary balance, the beam may be made of any hard and stout wood twenty inches long, three-quarters of an inch wide and one-quarter of an inch thick. The arms must be of exactly equal length; the fulcrum above but near the centre of gravity; the suspension points of the scale pans on a level with the fulcrum. Make the pivots of large needles or steel wire filed into a triangular section, and use steel or hard glass for supports. Attach the scale pans, and balance the beam accurately by filing off excess of material, or by supplying deficiency by coiling wire about the lighter arm. All that is now lacking is the means of support, which may be from a double hook as in the little hand scales used by old fashioned doctors, or preferably by inserting the gudgeons in the sides of a mortise at the top of a post.

Now avoid all chances of error arising from inequality in the length of the arms by using Borda's method of double weighing; *i. e.*, balance the body to be weighed by shot or sand in the other pan; then remove the body and substitute known weights until the equilibrium is restored: these weights will represent the exact weight of the body. By following these directions with care, a balance can be made sensitive enough to turn with a small fraction of a grain, and accurate as any one will need for any ordinary occasion.

A steelyard is easily made. Take a small beam fifteen inches long, and insert a pivot of triangular steel three inches from one end. Make a support by cutting two holes opposite each other in a strip of brass bent in the shape of an inverted *U* (∩); the bend of the ∩ will serve for a handle. Attach a scale pan on the shorter arm one inch from the pivot, and balance the beam by fastening strips of lead to the shorter arm. Divide the longer arm into inches and half inches, and make peas of convenient weights in whole units, as one ounce, eight ounces, and one pound. Test the scale by adding known weights to the scale pan.

A Danish steelyard is a curious modification of the preceding, in which the scale pan is fixed to one end of the beam and a heavy counterpoise is fastened to the other; the fulcrum is the moveable part. Make the fulcrum by placing a wire below the beam and bending it into a triangular shape, and graduate the beam by finding the point of equilibrium, which is the zero point; then add weights to the pan and mark the place of the fulcrum for each addition. As a machine for weighing this is an awkward contrivance, but it well illustrates the action of levers of the first kind.

I have not succeeded in making the Bent Lever balance of wood, but think it might be done if one could find a stick with the requisite natural bend. It may, however, be readily made by taking a stiff wire a foot long, and bending three inches at one end into an abrupt curve so terminated by a small hook or incision that a scale pan may be attached. File the other end to a point; flatten the wire where the curve begins, and pierce the centre of the flattened portion so that a darning needle may be inserted to act as a pivot. Now suspend the lever so that the point of the long arm may play along an arc and graduate the arc by placing known weights in the pan. For example, drive the pivot into one side of a slate frame and describe the arc on the slate. The curved arm must be bent so that the pan will move clear of the slate. When carefully made this is a very useful balance for light objects. A very pretty modification of it is sold by the stationers to weigh letters upon.

It is not easy to describe a compound lever balance without diagrams, but it is not difficult to construct one. Imagine a large, stout, empty slate frame standing directly before you. At one third of the distance from each end of the right hand upright, make a mortise, and make another mortise in the centre of the left hand upright. Insert in the lower mortise the end of a beam, moving freely inside the frame, and supported by a needle, as fulcrum, piercing the sides of the mortise and the beam. In the centre mortise place a similar beam; bring both beams to a level, and connect the free end of the lower beam with the second beam by means of a vertical wire. Now attach the free end of the second beam to the shorter arm of a lever of the first class playing on an axis within the upper mortise, and extending its longer arm outside the frame on the right. Do away with friction as much as possible, and bring the apparatus to an equilibrium by adding weights as needed. At any point in the lower lever attach a scale pan; a pea balancing this on the longer arm of the upper lever will mark the zero point of the scale. The other points may then be determined as before. In this contrivance the lower and middle are levers of the second class. By varying the points of attachment of the weights, and of the levers to each other, this device may be made very serviceable in the study of levers. *In every experiment with levers, the beam or beams must be brought to an equilibrium before attempting to show the relation between power and weight.*

These examples are thus multiplied to show a few of the many devices of the sort which may be employed to arouse, interest, and instruct a class. The practical application which every pupil can make of at least one of these little contrivances, will perhaps lead to greater care in their construction. It is cheaper to buy a small scale, but it is far more profitable to make the whole series. The specific directions herein detailed admit of infinite variations within the general laws. A pen-holder tilted across the edge of a book; a ruler balanced on the finger; the wire unwound from a broom-stick; a boy's bow,—anything that bears upon the subject may be brought into requisition to exemplify the practice and aid in demonstrating the principles of the department of science under consideration.

Finally, let me add, that my only reason for multiplying specific details, is the wish for inducing younger members of the profession, who are endeavoring to make bricks without straw (which is the Egyptian for teaching Physics without apparatus), to find some assistance and relief to themselves and their pupils in these simple, yet satisfactory contrivances. I may also say that these suggestions are not a matter of theory, but of actual experience in making all the forms of scales herein described to my own great profit and delight, and, as I hope, to the advantage of some of my pupils. S. A. N.

LETTER FROM DR. E. L. YOUMANS.

To the Editor of the Ohio Educational Monthly:

DEAR SIR: Claiming as I do a large liberty of dissent from current opinions upon various subjects, and freely conceding an equal liberty to others, I am not disposed to find fault with adverse criticism of the views advocated in the educational work I have recently put forth, entitled "The Culture Demanded by Modern Life." But a reviewer of that book in your December issue has placed me in such a relation to the distinguished authors whose contributions make up the chief portion of the volume, as seems to require a few words of correction. He says:

> * * "it may be seriously questioned whether Professor Youmans has not sought to strengthen his own position by putting the eminent authorities whom he quotes into attitudes which they never intended to occupy, and by using them in ways to which some of them would never have consented. The address of John Stuart Mill, taken as a whole and read independently, would probably

> make upon no one the precise impression made by those portions of it quoted in this volume, and set in such peculiar collocations. The lectures of Whewell and Faraday and Liebig, and others here published, delivered as they were on various occasions and for the most part independently of each other, were not designed to be used as so many parts or sections of one vast argument against classical training; and it is quite doubtful whether all of these distinguished authors would have consented to any such use."

As many will read this review who may never see the work, and as some of these may be prejudiced by this statement, I ask attention to the following facts: When I formed the plan of collecting some of the principal arguments which have been made by various eminent thinkers in favor of the increasing claims of scientific studies in our higher culture, I opened a correspondence with the gentlemen whose views I proposed to publish, stating fully and distinctly my purpose and the aim and scope of the work, and requesting their consent to such publication. I received not only a ready permission from Professors Tyndall, Huxley, Faraday, Whewell, Spencer, Hodgson, Barnard, the Pagets, Herschel, De Morgan, and Draper, but this permission was accompanied in most cases by a cordial indorsement of the project, and in several instances by a revision of their productions, while in no case was there a lisp of objection. Prof. Henfrey, author of the admirable lecture on the educational claims of Botany, was no more, but I had from his intelligent widow both consent to reissue the lecture and a statement, which was confirmed from various other sources, that the cause of the progress of scientific education to a higher place than has been hitherto conceded to it, lay very near his heart. One of the literary legatees of Dr. Wayland also gave his kind consent to the republication in my volume of a portion of his father's able address at Union College, while the recent biography of Dr. Wayland furnishes abundant evidence of his desire to press the sciences forward into greater prominence at the expense of the traditional predominance of the classics.

I may further state that the leading discussions of the work—the lectures of Drs. Tyndall, Paget, Faraday, Whewell, and Hodgson—were parts of a course delivered before the Royal Institution of Great Britain, and especially designed to urge the sciences into increasing educational consideration. Moreover, this course was projected and managed by Dr. Wm. B. Hodgson, a gentleman of wealth and culture in London, who has devoted the last twenty years of his life to the promotion of this branch of educational reform, and he is the author of the pamphlet which Dr. Carpenter acknowledged before the English Parliamentary Commission had changed his views upon the subject. And now if any external evidence is wanted as to the feelings and considerations which led to the organization of that course of lectures, we have it in the recent declaration of Dr. Hodgson to Prof. Blackie, that "*the classical system of education as it exists in England, is a superstition and a failure.*"

The lectures of this course were published together immediately after their delivery "as parts or sections of one vast argument against classical training." They were not republished in this country, and the English edition was speedily exhausted, while no reprint followed. While there were scores of works advocating the claims of the classics, *urging* the claims of a system which has been ascendant for a thousand years, this volume of lectures, thus originating, was the only work presenting the scientific side of the case that I had ever seen, and my first intention was simply to reprint it. Upon reflection, however, and consultation with friends, it was concluded that the design of that work would now be more perfectly accomplished by omitting one or two of its less important discussions and widening the range of the authorities.

My work was first published in England. In reproducing it in this country, I added the lectures of Liebig and Barnard and my own introductory essay. As the work was just preparing for the press, we received Mr. Mill's Inaugural Address at St. Andrews. I had not time to do as I had formerly done, consult the author about using his production, or I should undoubtedly have done so. The argument for the study of science contained in the address was pertinent to my purpose, and essentially complete in itself. Its reasoning stands upon its own intrinsic merits, and I therefore felt that it was an entirely proper thing to introduce it. I stated that Mr. Mill, in the same address, had made an able argument for the classics also; but I had no occasion to use it, as my volume was designed to consider the culture *demanded* by modern life—and it is unnecessary to make a demand for that which we already have in overwhelming abundance.

The point of your correspondent's article is to fix upon me the charge of a narrow partizanship, and in this way to discredit the work I have compiled. As to the narrowness of the scheme of education which I have there sketched, it may not be inappropriate to say that many have objected to it as too comprehensive. If science be our highest and most accurate knowledge upon all subjects in which the knowledge is capable of improvement,—if it be, as I have there considered it, the latest report of the human mind upon the order of the universe,—it is not so obvious how a mental culture founded upon it can be characterized as narrow.

As to the imputation of partizanship, in these days when men band and organize together for the propagation of opinions political, social, sectarian, and reformatory, it can scarcely be regarded as a very heinous offense to coöperate for the advancement of specific views, or even to get the feelings enlisted in the spirit of the movement. Granting, however, that partizan feeling has a blinding, perverting influence, allow me to ask where you will find less of coöperative action or partizan appliances or the bias of feeling which grow out of them, than among those who are laboring to modify our traditional education so as to bring it into more complete harmony with the requirements of the age. Certainly those who take up this question from conviction, and in the dispassionate spirit which it is one of the great benefits of a true scientific training to confer, are quite as little liable to be warped in their judgment by partizan prejudices as those who represent the interests of an old and widely established system by which they have been moulded and influenced from childhood.

But admitting that partizan feeling is unworthy, and that I can not claim entire immunity from it, I still protest against being regarded as the chief of sinners in this respect; it is a "serious question" if it should not be more equitably distributed. A book is published consisting mainly of the deliberate utterances of many of the ablest thinkers of the age upon a public question of the gravest moment, touching our educational system. There is no other work of the kind accessible, and it is widely and heartily welcomed even by those who by no means accept all its doctrines. In these circumstances, a writer addressing the teachers of Ohio through their accredited organ, in relation to this work, occupies himself mainly in pointing out the mental defects of the editor, which is certainly easy enough, and abstains from the faintest whisper of commendation of the book. Is there not here seen the betrayal of something like biased feeling and a prejudiced view, and does it not look, Mr. Editor, as if the homily on partizanship might have a double application?

E. L. Y.

TOO MUCH MACHINERY.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

The back-woods schools of by-gone days, with all their shortcomings, did a better work than we are apt to suppose. It is seldom possible to "ring out the old, ring in the new," without some sacrifice of good, though our whole gain may more than compensate us for our partial loss. Those old, primitive, ungraded, unclassified, un-normalized institutions in which our fathers conned their daily lessons, and of which many of us might recall personal reminiscences, had their peculiar advantages as well as their peculiar failings. They did n't run in ruts. They were not put into strait-jackets by inexorable boards of education. They were not besieged by over-persistent publishers, or deluged by floods of rival text-books. They were your *bona fide* free schools. Neither legislative nor conventional trammels restricted them. Committees of examination kept their distance. The teacher wrought according to his "own sweet will." Nor educational journal, nor summer institute, nor lecture on theory and practice, vexed his tranquil soul; and his ear was never offended by the sound of that euphonious polysyllable, *pedagogics*. Each pupil was at liberty, within not very definite limits, to scale the rugged "hill of science" by a self-chosen path. "What do you want to study?" was the master's first question to the newcomer. There were almost as many classes as text-books and scarcely two text-books alike. Individual competition ran high. Nobody was held back by his class; for if one pupil could run ahead of the rest, away he shot, like a locomotive unfastened from its train. He who had the pluck to try arithmetic, for example, bought a book, slate, and pencil, and began to cipher away as if for dear life, and that was a proud day on which he could affirm—"I've done every sum in the book." And when the "spelling match" came off, what a hero was he, or a heroine she, who, after the close, exciting contest of a whole afternoon, triumphantly held the floor, while, one by one, fifty, eighty, or a hundred boys and girls "missed," and were compelled by the laws of orthographic war to sit down and chew the bitter bread of defeat. Have we as good spellers now-a-days as we used to have?

The back-woods schools have nearly passed away; and ere long we shall know them only in tradition. A new order of things is inaugurated. It is not to be doubted that our modern modes of school administration are a vast improvement on those which they supersede. Yet something of the old was good, and something of that good *may be wanting* in the new. With multiplied facilities for doing educational work, come multiplied dangers of abusing those facilities. There is much in the school-work of to-day that is artificial and mechanical. We are somewhat system-ridden. The recitation-room appears a little like a factory, and the scholars we turn out seem a little like job-work. Intent upon running our admirable machinery, we grow to attach more value to it than to the work it is meant to do. Imperceptibly we allow ourselves to regard as ends what were originally designed as only means. We begin to think the children were made for the schools, and not the schools for the children. We so accustom ourselves to a stated routine that any change, even for the better, becomes intolerable to us. And it comes to pass that with first rate instrumentalities, we do only second, or third, or fourth rate work; while with second, or third, or fourth rate instrumentalities, we might do first rate work. Rightly graded classes, uniform text-books, good school houses, furniture, and apparatus, excellent methods of teaching, all these may help or hinder according as they are well or ill used. These are good so far as they tend to vitalize and expand the minds of those instructed. They are evil so far as they tend to deaden and contract the minds of the instructed. Formal school regulations, however good, are likely to check the free and natural growth of mind. But free growth of mind *is education*. And *education* is what we should aim at, not mere instruction. Channing forcibly says: "The mind needs instruction from the cradle to the grave; but this it needs as a material to act upon, and not as a lesson to be mechanically learned. The great aim of instruction should be to give the mind the conscious and free use of its own powers."

However much knowledge a school offers, if it does not also furnish conditions which enable the mind to appropriate knowledge, it fails in an essential particular. Food is necessary for us, but so is the power to digest it. We do not wish by our schools to produce that class of men alluded to by Bushnell, who never grow. "They grew, and that was the end of it." * * * "They work too much in the line of scholarhood, and only get their souls encrusted by the mere cliency of habit; even as the egg that was growing briskly in its first free state, enlarges never a line after it has found maturity in a shell." It is sad enough to see men secreting shells of fixed habit which are to prevent all after growth, but it is sadder to see school children's minds "cribbed, cabined, and confined" by means of processes falsely called educational. We have now in mind a practice, common in graded schools, called *working for per cents.* It is to be classed among the education instrumentalities exceedingly liable to abuse. What sort of mental expansion is to be expected when the motive to study is nothing higher than the hope of obtaining a "hundred per cent." for performing a set task in a set time? So much technical information is prescribed to be memorized, whether comprehended or not, and whatever pupil acquires a stated proportion of this information, in the set way and time, is advanced to a higher grade or class, there to be put through the same process, and so on, *ad finem.* This cramming system is evil in its effects upon both teacher and pupil. The teacher who conforms to it, works not up to his own highest conception of excellent teaching; he degenerates into a sort of intellectual task-master. His very best quality, his individuality, is sacrificed. He can not study the science and art of his profession in a broad and noble way, for in doing that he might fail to push his pupils on to a satisfactory examination according to the procrustean schedule laid down by the authorities. He must bend all his energies to the selection of expedients by which to impart the prescribed facts in the prescribed time. A system which so demoralizes teachers is not less hurtful to pupils. It sets an uninviting table, and says to all, "Eat what is here, no more, no less, whether you desire it or not, whether you need it or not, whether you can swallow it or not." If any intellectually famished Oliver Twist ventures to ask for more, he is graciously told that there isn't time to eat any more. If any poor dyspeptic turns away in loathing from his unpalatable dish, he is sent to the foot of the table and ordered to eat to-day's dinner to-morrow. No wonder that the bill of fare at length becomes disagreeable to all the guests, and that they come to the conclusion that all food is a necessary evil. No wonder that they hate books, and long for the day when they shall be released from the tread-mill routine of study and recitation.

THERE is no more enterprise in factories than there is in churches and schools.

LAW.

There are various words in our language which are used in very different significations. It is important that care should be exercised in the employment of such words, so that the different significations may not be interchanged or confounded. *Law* is one of these words. It is of common occurrence in the more advanced text-books, and it is desirable that pupils should be taught to discriminate between its different meanings.

In the proper sense of the term, law is a command addressed by one person to another. The command emanates from one who possesses the authority to issue it, and is addressed to one who is supposed to know what its meaning is, and who is capable of rendering obedience to it. Each of the ten commandments is a law addressed by God to man, requiring or forbidding something to be done. We also call the whole the moral law. The same meaning is given to the word when we speak of human government, as that of the state, the family, the school. The monarch issues commands to his subjects, the parent to his children, the teacher to his pupils.

A law in the other sense is a mere statement of a truth, or fact, or method. Thus we speak of mathematical laws, chemical laws, astronomical laws. It is a mathematical law that powers of the same sort are multiplied by adding their exponents. It is a law in chemistry, that oxygen and hydrogen combined in certain proportions will form water. It is a law of astronomy, that matter attracts matter with a force varying directly as the mass and inversely as the square of the distance.

The first of these is a *truth*, capable of demonstration. Whoever comprehends the terms in which it is expressed, can satisfy himself that it must be true. The other two are *facts*, to which we know no exception. We believe them on the ground of experience; not because we can establish them by strict demonstrations, as in the case of a mathematical proposition.

Between the word *law* in its scientific sense and the word in its governmental sense, there is little in common. As used in the sciences, the word *law* does not imply a command imposed by one being upon another. A law in pure science is an abstract truth; a law in physics is a statement of the mode in which the Creator carries on the universe. If we say the world of matter is obedient to the command of God, we use language in a figurative, not in a literal sense. Obedience implies intelligence.

These two meanings of the word *law* are often confounded. A writer on Moral Science, whose works have been extensively used, after defining Ethics as the science of Moral Law, says: "By the term *law*, I think, we generally mean a form of expression denoting either a mode of existence, or an order of sequence." He cites the first of Newton's three laws of motion as denoting a mode of existence, and the third as denoting an order of sequence. Mathematical axioms, according to time, are of the same kind; they denote an order of sequence. So also the laws of Chemistry, and those of Intellectual Philosophy. He adds: "The meaning of law, when referring to civil society, is substantially the same. It expresses an established order of sequence between a specified action and a particular mode of reward or of punishment. Such, in general, is the meaning of law."

What could be more unsatisfactory than this account of the meaning of the word *law?* To begin with a law in physics, or a law in mathematics, in order to give a clear conception of moral law, is to invert the natural order, and the consequence is perplexity and confusion.

Having thus stated that a moral law is an order of sequence, just as a physical law is, we are not surprised that the writer proceeds to say in substance, that the violation of a moral law will be followed by the penalty as surely as the violation of a physical law. "Yet men have always flattered themselves with the hope that they could violate *moral* law, and escape the consequences which God has established. The reason is obvious. In *physics*, the consequent follows the antecedent, often immediately, and most commonly after a stated and well-known interval. In *morals*, the result is frequently long delayed; and the time of its occurrence is always uncertain."

The author thus, having before gone to law in physics to get the idea of moral law, goes again to physics to illustrate the idea and certainty of punishment for the violation of moral law. This is supposed to be made clear by a reference to the penalty inflicted for the violation of a physical law. Now, what is a violation of a law in physics? Law, remember, is "a form of expression denoting a mode of sequence"; it is a statement of what is believed to be a general, or rather a universal fact. How shall we set about *violating* a form of expression—a general statement? How shall we *disobey* a proposition?

"Leaping from a precipice" is given as an instance of violating or disobeying the law of gravity. This law is, that a body unsupported, will fall to the ground. A man leaps from a precipice; will he fall, or remain suspended in mid air? If he falls, how is the law of gravity violated? The law is as true as if it were a mass of lead that went over the precipice instead of a human body. The man who takes such a leap may disobey some other law, but he does not disobey the law of gravity. No man can disobey it.

A law in physics, implies universality. If not univesally true, it is no law. Water freezes at 32° Fahrenheit; it boils at 212°. Show an indisputable instance of the freezing of water at 40°, or of its boiling at 200°, and the law is overthrown. A man may plunge his hand into boiling water, but the law which he thereby violates is not that of heat, but that of common sense.

A moral law, then, is one thing, and a law in physics is another. The one comes to us as a command which we ought to obey, but which we may disobey. The other is a proposition, a general statement. By careful observation or experiment, certain facts are supposed to have been established, and we generalize them into a comprehensive statement, which we call a law. Like any other proposition, it addresses itself to our *understanding*, but not to our *will*. We may believe it or disbelieve it; but to speak of obeying or disobeying it, save in a sense wholly figurative, is simply absurd.

As a *science*, ethics has indeed its laws, or principles, as astronomy has; but the *laws of morals* are entirely different from *moral* law. It was the latter to which the writer of whom we have spoken, had reference. I. W. A.

BEAUTIFUL AND TRUE.—In an article in Frazer's Magazine, this brief but beautiful extract occurs: "Education does not commence with the alphabet. It begins with a mother's look—with a father's smile of approbation or sign of reproof—with a sister's gentle pressure of the hand, or a brother's noble act of forbearance—with birds' nests admired and not touched—with creeping ants and almost impassable emmets—with humming bees and great bee hives—with pleasant walks and shady lanes, and with thoughts directed in sweet and kindly tones and words to nature, to acts of benevolence, to deeds of virtue, and to the source of all good—to God himself.

School Officers' Department.

THE Commissioner of Internal Revenue has decided that teachers' certificates do not require a U. S. revenue stamp. Section 154 of the Excise Act, passed March 26, 1867, is as follows:

> "All official instruments, documents, and papers issued by the officers of the U. S. Government, or by the officers of any state, county, town, or other municipal corporation, given in the exercise of their official capacity, are exempt."

County examiners, not having received due notification of this change, have continued to stamp certificates, as was required by the former law (according to the decision of the Revenue Department), and, as a consequence, nearly $1,000 of our institute fund is in the U. S. treasury.

TRIALS OF COUNTRY TEACHERS.

We submitted last month a few words to school directors respecting the duty of sustaining teachers in their laudable efforts to improve the character of their instruction. We have since received several letters from country teachers, relating to the trials and vexations to which they are subjected by parental dictation and obstinacy. These annoyances, we observe, are due, in almost every instance, to one patron, who, from chronic officiousness, or some other unfortunate defect, takes special delight in opposing the teacher, even though the progress of his children is thus sacrificed.

One lady teacher complains of an "M. D." in her district, who declares every thing "modern" in school instruction to be a "perfect humbug." She adopted the plan of having her pupils print or write their spelling lessons, which excellent practice the said doctor opposed very strenuously, appealing to the directors to order the slates thrown out of the school. The directors waited on the teacher, but, after hearing her reasons for the practice, decided that there was "no moral wrong in it." As a last resort the doughty "M. D." positively forbade his little daughter's printing any more, and actually took the slate and hid it!

A second letter is from an earnest, progressive teacher in one of our western border counties, who has taught the same school three terms and is now teaching the fourth. Her success is shown in the fact that notwithstanding the extreme old-fogyism of the locality, she has secured the furnishing of her school-room with new desks, blackboards, maps, pictures, etc., and has won the confidence and support of all her patrons save one. This man remains violently opposed to what he terms her "new-fangled teaching." Among the "new-fangled" practices to which he fiercely objects are the teaching of children to read little sentences before learning their a-b-c's; the use of stereotyped copy-books in teaching writing; and the occasional practice of free gymnastics. But the special offense of the teacher was the ruling of the smaller pupils' slates on one side, for writing and printing purposes, as is done in Cincinnati and many other cities and towns. He carried his hostility to this so far as to take his children from school, and finally brought the matter before the township board of education, which body, after much deliberation, reached the conclusion that the ruling of slates was destroying property, and could only be done by the owner's consent. A petition was presented to the board signed by the three local directors of the sub-district and all the patrons of the school, save one, requesting that the teacher be permitted to teach and govern the school as she had been doing.

We find it difficult to speak temperately of such criminal folly as this account discloses. Here is a family of children sadly needing schooling—a boy fourteen years of age reading with difficulty in the second reader—and the father, to prevent their slates from being ruled, takes them from an excellent school! We raise no question respecting the right of the teacher to rule pupils' slates without their consent. She wished the slates ruled in order that they might make more rapid progress in learning to write, and no reasonable parent would have made such a contemptible fuss about it. We can but feel that the action of the board should have been supplemented by the donation of a set of ruled slates to the teacher for the special benefit of these unfortunate children.

But our object in alluding to these cases of parental interference and obstinacy is to show the necessity of a change in the management of our country schools. As matters now stand, teachers are largely at the mercy of obstinate pupils and meddlesome parents, from which, unhappily, few sub-districts in the State are wholly free. Any school patron who chooses to do so, may dictate to the teacher respecting both the discipline and the instruction of his children, and there is no official authority directly responsible for the progress of the school, and fully competent to protect the teacher, to which he can appeal. The law makes it the duty of the sub-district directors to employ teachers, and to visit the schools, but their further management and control are to be exercised under and in obedience to the authority of the township board of education. The duty of prescribing studies and text-books, and of suspending pupils for disorderly conduct, is expressly committed by the law to the township board, which may, of course, over-rule and set aside whatever the sub-district directors may do in either of these directions. In other words, under our present system we have one board of officers entrusted with the direct management and control of the schools, including the employment of teachers, and another board entrusted with the *authority* necessary to exercise such management and control! The duty of school direction belongs to the local directors; the authority, to the township board! As a result of this double-headed arrangement, the schools are left practically without efficient control and direction.

What is wanted is the placing of our township schools under the direction of one board, alone responsible for their right management and entrusted with the necessary authority for the proper and efficient discharge of its duties. This is now true in all our cities and towns. The same board that makes the estimates and certifies the necessary school levies, fixes the wages of teachers, makes the contracts for fuel, repairs, etc.;—the same authority that employs the teachers, enacts rules for their government, and sustains them in their discipline and instruction. This is what is needed in the townships, and this alone can give harmony and efficiency to official school direction and control. The true remedy is the township system—a township board of education entrusted with the *full* control and management of the schools.

THE TOWNSHIP SYSTEM.

Another evil almost invariably resulting from the division of the town* into districts,* is the unjust distinction which it occasions in the character of the schools, and in the distribution of the school money. Only where there is a responsible committee* authorized to act in the name of the town, can there be that equality in the schools which the law contemplates. One district will be more intelligent and active than another, will have better school houses, more competent prudential committees, and consequently better teachers. The smaller and more retired districts, which stand in greatest need of good public schools, because entirely dependent on them, are more likely to languish for want of public spirit and good management, than to be prosperous. The theory of popular education is founded upon the principle that the public security requires the education of all the citizens, and that it is both just and expedient to tax the property of the people for the education of all the children of the people. As the tax is levied equally upon all the parts of the town, and as the object contemplated, which alone justifies such taxation, is the education of the whole mass of the population, without distinction, nothing short of an equal provision for all should satisfy the public conscience. All parts of a town have an equal claim upon the benefits of the school system, the administration of it not excepted. Any method, therefore, of dispensing the means of education, which, in its operation, prevents equality of privileges, should be regarded as an abuse, unless it is inevitable, and be speedily corrected. The separate and even opposite interests of districts, and the various devices resorted to, in order to carry their measures, frequently lead to an unequal and unjust distribution of the public money. There is but one sure way of disposing of this matter equitably, and that is not to distribute the money at all, but rather to make it the duty of the school committee to provide, as nearly as may be, equal advantages of education for all the children of the town. The circumstances influencing the character of the schools are so complex that no method of dividing the school money, however perfect, can reach the essential point—equal access to good schools. A large amount of money, without any guaranty that it will be judiciously expended, will not make amends for the loss experienced by a family residing in an unfortunate district, where a judicious management of schools is not to be looked for. It is both the interest and the duty of a town not to intrust such sacred interests to those who are either indifferent to them, or unskillful in guarding them. A purely discretionary power, given to a committee consisting of the wisest and best men in the whole town, to be held strictly accountable for their administration, is indispensable to the accomplishment of the object in view. It often happens that peculiar circumstances require a variation from the usual rate of expenditures, in which case only those who understand all the particulars, and, moreover, have a large discretionary power, can so adjust the whole system of operations, as to meet these exigencies as they arise. When special aid is needed at one point, expedients can be found for obtaining relief from other points where there may be an overplus, or where slight retrenchments would scarcely be felt. Without such a general superintendence of the expenditures of the schools, there will be cases in which some one school will be in great want, and perhaps be suspended, while others shall have abundant supplies.—16*th Mass. Annual Report.*

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* The terms "town," "districts," and "school committee," used in the school reports of Massachusetts, correspond respectively to "township," "sub-districts," and "board of education" in our Ohio system.

POWER OF PARENTS OVER TEACHERS.

In school, where the mind is first placed under care to be fitted for the grand purposes of life, the child should be taught to consider his instructor, in many respects, superior to the parent in point of authority. The infant mind early apprehends and distinguishes with a surprising sagacity, and is always more influenced by example than precept. When a parent, therefore, enters the school, and by respectful deportment acknowledges the teacher's authority, the pupil's obedience and love for the master are strengthened; and the principle of subordination is naturally ingrafted in the child, and in the most agreeable and effectual manner possible; that is, by the influence of example. It is by this happy conspiracy between the teacher and parent that a new power—a genial influence over the infant mind—is acquired, which is of infinite importance to the welfare and happiness of society. To aim a blow at this power would be to strike at the very basis of *magisterial authority.* It was to support this important element of good government that the learned and judicious school-master said to Charles II. in the plenitude of his power: "Sire, pull off thy hat in my school; for if my scholars discover that the king is above me in authority here, they will soon cease to respect me."

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The impression that parents have a legal right to dictate to teachers is entirely erroneous. As it would be manifestly improper for the teacher to undertake to dictate to the parents in their own house, so it would be improper for the parents to dictate to him in his, the school-house. * * * As a general thing, the only persons who have a legal right to give orders to the teacher are his employers, namely, the committee in some States, and in others the directors or trustees.—*The Lawyer in the School-Room.*

Editorial Department.

We are happy to be able to announce that we are meeting with encouraging success in our efforts to secure contributions to our pages from several of the leading educators of the country. Next month our readers may look for a valuable article on the workings of the sub-district system in New England, by Hon. Birdsey G. Northrop, Secretary of the State Board of Education of Connecticut, and also for an excellent contribution from Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, of Minnesota. Our Ohio contributors, second to no corps of educational writers, have begun the year nobly. We send greetings to our many readers, and wish them all a very "Happy New Year."

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

The author of the article on this subject, found in another place, is near the close of his eighty-fifth year, and his views may, therefore, be accepted as the ripened fruit of a long experience. He has done, moreover, what we think the opponents to corporal punishment in school are bound to do, viz: submit a plan of government in which the rod has no place, and which, after an adequate trial, has proved successful. The plan submitted by our eminent and venerable correspondent is simple, and, we have no doubt, has been successful in his and other similarly skillful hands. It will be noticed that its two leading principles are *moral instruction* and a *present motive* for good conduct, the latter principle being embodied in the system of tickets and records. That these influences may be made exceedingly potent in the control of children, no one will deny. Whatever may be true of their sufficiency in all cases and under all circumstances, their skillful use will certainly remove the necessity of a constant reliance on the rod, and will render a resort to it an exceptional and unfrequent occurrence.

The modes of keeping a present motive for good conduct before pupils, used by teachers, are various, but chief among these are the "Record System" and the "Ticket System." In the use of the former method the teacher keeps a record, in some form, of the recitations and conduct of each pupil, and the desire to stand well on this record is made an incentive to industry and good conduct. This desire may be increased by awarding to those pupils who stand well, an honorable position in the school, stated holidays, material gifts, etc., by sending a monthly abstract of the record to parents and guardians, by submitting a general summary to the school board and visitors, and by making the record a basis of promotion.

In the ticket system the ticket takes the place of the record entry, and is to the pupil a present and palpable evidence of success or failure. A record of these tickets may be kept in the method recommended by Mr. Slocomb, which is very simple, or the merit tickets may be exchanged by the pupil for cards of greater nominal value and these in turn for others, thus relieving the teacher of the labor of keeping a record. This form of the ticket system is embodied in the series of checks, tickets, and cards published by John Atwater, Chicago, Ill., and in the "Aids to School Discipline," published by Schermerhorn & Co., New York. The potency of the tickets may be increased in all the ways specified in connection with the record system.

How far a teacher may use the incentives furnished by either of these systems, is an unsettled question, and we pass it by, for the present, with the remark, that it is never wise to use artificial incentives to secure good conduct when those which are natural and real will be efficacious. Of two motives equally effective, the teacher should always place the higher before his pupils. Nor is a teacher justified in tempting the majority of his pupils to act from low motives because such motives alone will influence and control the minority. While we do not regard the approbation of others, an honorable position in school, or even a high record of merit as an improper incentive, neither of these motives presents the true end of study or the true aim of conduct. When used they should be properly subordinated to higher and nobler motives. The young should be led, as rapidly as possible, to act from a high sense of duty and honor.

It will be noticed that our correspondent's system of government is a union of the record and ticket systems, and that each is used in its simplest form and in such a manner as to make active its highest incentives. The young teacher will find the remarks added respecting the treatment of exceptional cases very suggestive, and the entire article will well repay a careful perusal.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL INSTRUCTION.

When we take up a new book or pamphlet, we usually read a few paragraphs very critically, testing the logic, weighing the statements as to accuracy and truthfulness, considering the words employed, and the general style of expression. If in these and other respects we find satisfactory excellence, we relieve our mind from its too critical mood, and peruse the work with freedom and pleasure. If on the contrary we find bad logic, looseness or license of statement, or other like serious defects, we either lay the work aside or glance through it to catch its general drift or glean such facts as may interest us.

In this spirit we took up to-day a pamphlet containing a lecture or essay, entitled "Our Grammar Schools: Why they do not furnish more and better materials for our High Schools."* We first read the brief preface, and finding there several statements altogether too sweeping and unqualified, we began at once the process of gleaning. We had not, however, progressed far when we discovered that we had in hand an able and suggestive discussion of an important subject, and we turned back to the opening sentence, taking a new start, and reading carefully, with increasing interest and satisfaction, to the close.

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* A Lecture read before the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, at Springfield, Oct. 19th, 1867, by Henry F. Harrington, Supt. Pub. Schools, New Bedford, Mass. Boston: Crosby & Ainsworth.

The discussion flows from two facts, viz: (1) that the number of scholars in our high schools is comparatively very small; and (2) that the preparation of those admitted is found to be poor and inadequate, not, perhaps, in the technical requisitions of the examination, but in mental grasp and power, and in a practical knowledge of the power and use of language. The existence of these two defects is attributed, the former in part and the latter altogether, to the "strained and pedantic standard of qualification for admission." The remedy proposed is a radical change in this standard and in the examinations by which it is now sustained.

The nature of this change is in part described. It is urged, in the first place, that the system of "repressive maximum examinations" which only the gifted spirits of the several classes can pass, should be abolished; that the classes should be permitted to move forward in mass, on a scale of minimum requirement, and only in exceptional cases should any one be kept back. By this plan of promotion the great majority of the pupils who remain in school until they are of proper age, would reach the high school, and the certainty of reaching it in course would induce many who now drop out of school, to remain; and thus at least as many again pupils as now enter the high schools, would enjoy their advantages.

To the objection that this system of promotion would burden the high schools with many pupils inadequately prepared for the course of study, it is replied that the abolition of the present pedantic and false standard of qualification and the adoption of a rational and true standard would reform grammar-school instruction, and thus the defects in preparation, of which high school teachers now complain, would be largely removed. This is the main and central point of the lecture. It is urged that the questions now annually prepared as examination tests "emphasize and make imperative all the detailed lumber of the text-books"; that they necessitate, on the part of the grammar-school teachers, "a rigid adherence to the mere technics of the several test studies, at the expense of all others, and of the vitality and highest usefulness of those studies themselves." It is out of these false and arbitrary examination tests that fact-cramming, technical teaching, and high pressure flow, and it is in vain to inveigh against these evils so long as their potent cause remains. A teacher is more than human, who, with the apparition of an arbitrary and false ordeal by which his success is to be estimated forever looming up before him, can teach in accordance with his better judgment. The desire to secure a high percentage on the test studies, will inevitably cause him either to neglect the non-test branches or overtask his pupils, and lest the omission of some unimportant detail may result in the failure of his pupils, he teaches every thing in the text-books, whether useful or useless, and in a manner which he knows is not the best. Thus it is that our grammar schools are in part badly taught; that the pupils are crammed with much that is worse than useless, and deprived of much that is needful to a well-rounded culture. Thus it is that pupils taught by men of comparatively narrow ability and lean acquirements who are willing slaves of text-books, pass, year after year, the test examination with superior eclat to those taught by men of depth of power and breadth of culture, but who scorn to let the text-book become their master. What grammar-school teachers need is *freedom*—freedom to be themselves and to teach according to their conscience and power; and this they can not have until the examinations of their pupils discredit the bald technics with which the memory may have been crammed, and recognize that culture which enters into the staple of mind and character.

The closing pages of the pamphlet are devoted to a consideration of the influences which have caused test examinations to become what they are, and the changes which should be made in grammar-school instruction. The root of the evil is held to be a false notion as to what is the object of study, and also as to the relative value of the different studies pursued—a notion which makes the grand, paramount end of school instruction to be the ability "to do sums"; to parse knotty passages in Milton or Cowper and reel off the appropriate rules and definitions; and to run through the medley of insignificant details in the geographies, from "What is the north fork of Musquash River?" all through to "Which way is Bungtown from Sleepy Hollow?"

It is urged that too much time and attention are given to arithmetic and grammar. "Our schools are sacrificed to arithmetic." It must be dethroned, and the place of honor given to language—"not the useless stuff that is drilled into our children's heads, under the name of grammar," but language as an expression of thought and feeling. Arithmetic may be well taught with the expenditure of half the average time at present devoted to it. The amount of written arithmetic now taught may be profitably abridged, and mental arithmetic, the analytical formulas of which are now forced on beginners by a dreary process of iteration and reiteration, should be taken up at a much later period in the school course. These logical analyses are now largely recited as an act of the memory, with scarcely a gleam of intelligent comprehension. President Hill, of Harvard College, is of the opinion that Colburn's First Lessons should be studied after written arithmetic, and this was the practice at Waltham when he had the direction of the schools there.

The scientific and methodical study of grammar, as a regular text-book exercise, any where below the first and second classes in the grammar school, is an absolute waste of time; and the study will prove of little use even in the upper classes, unless it has been preceded by such a course of training in language as imparts considerable scope and freedom in the use of words, the construction of sentences and the expression of ideas. The proper time to study the science of language is after one has become somewhat familiar with its power and use. This position is sustained not only by argument, but also by a strong array of authorities, from Locke to Spencer. It is also urged that the pupil's ability to use language, correctly and forcibly, should be tested in the examinations, and even more thoroughly than his knowledge of technical grammar.

This abridgement of the study of arithmetic and grammar which now en-gross most of the actual study of grammar-school pupils, would afford the necessary time for the mastery of those principles and truths which have direct relation to the ordinary phenomena of nature and the labors, duties, and facts of every day life.

The above is an imperfect outline of this very suggestive discussion. In sketching it we have aimed to present the leading ideas and positions, and this we have done, as far as possible, in the words of the writer. It will be seen that the strictures made on the instruction and management of our grammar schools, are grave, and that the reform proposed is of a radical character—too radical, indeed, to be effected unless it also reaches the primary and lower schools. No intelligent reader of this journal needs the assurance that we heartily indorse the views expressed respecting the abridgment of the time devoted to arithmetic and the postponement of the study of English grammar. We have expressed these views too often and too earnestly to leave any doubt respecting our position. We also assent to the proposition to give the practical study of language the foremost place not only in grammar schools, but in elementary instruction generally. We would put mental arithmetic neither before nor after written. They should go hand in hand, the successive lessons of the former being made introductory and preparatory to the latter. The two should be made one. In the more elementary course no attempt should be made at the formal logical analysis of problems, and even in the intermediate course such analysis should be very brief and simple. The latter half of Colburn's First Lessons has its true place as a part of an advanced course in arithmetic. We long ago, and after due trial, condemned the wordy rigmarole through which beginning classes in mental arithmetic are commonly put with a view of "training the logical faculty." The usual result of such drills, if thorough and persistent, is logical dyspepsia.

We think Mr. Harrington is also right respecting the cramping and grooving influence which comparative test examinations exert on school instruction, especially when such tests are narrow and technical; and his objections to "maximum examinations" which practically exclude common minds from the advantages of a higher education, are mainly well taken. "Ninety per cent." pupils are or ought to be in the minority. But we question the wisdom of promoting classes *en masse* on a *minimum* standard of qualification, as he proposes. Such a system would hold back, from year to year, the bright and industrious and chain them to the dull and indolent. What is wanted is such an elastic system of promotion as shall give the "choice spirits" a chance to move forward at a reasonable rate, and, at the same time, shall not prevent the proper advancement of the pupils of average and even moderate ability.

But we can not, at this time, enter further into the discussion of this very important subject. We close by asking whether three problems in the management of graded schools have yet been satisfactorily solved, namely: 1. How to instruct pupils in classes and not too greatly sacrifice their individual powers and peculiarities. 2. How to subject the results of school instruction to examination tests and not narrow and groove such instruction. 3. How to subject a corps of teachers to thorough supervision and not reduce them to operatives.

MISCELLANY.

In our December number we offered "Webster's New Dictionary" for the largest number of subscribers received in the months of December, January, and February. Who wishes this fine premium? For a list of other premiums, see our prospectus.

We are happy to add that our friends are making a good beginning in securing subscribers. Mr. Converse has sent us thirty-five from Toledo, Mr. Henkle eighteen from Salem, and others are doing likewise. We hope to reach 4,000 subscribers this year. Send in the clubs, good friends.

The back volumes of the Monthly, neatly bound in cloth, may be secured, singly or in sets, by addressing the publisher—price per volume $1.75; by mail, prepaid, $2.00. We have only a few copies of each volume. We can still supply the first six numbers of 1867 (January to June inclusive)—price by mail, prepaid, 50 cents; also the pamphlet on "Instruction in Language and Oral Grammar"—price, single copy, 10 cents; 25 copies, $2.00; 50 copies, $3.00.

The closing months of 1867 were characterized by grand displays of the forces of nature. The West Indies were swept by terrible hurricanes and visited by terrific earthquakes; the island of St. Thomas and other islands in the vicinity suffering greatly from both causes. A disastrous cyclone visited India causing a fearful loss of life and property. It is estimated that in the city of Bombay and neighborhood 1,000 persons perished, and that 30,000 huts and dwellings were utterly destroyed. A grand eruption of Mount Vesuvius began on the 15th of November, and still continues, presenting a magnificent appearance. Fine showers of meteors occurred at different points, and northern New York and the north-western portion of New England experienced distinct earthquake shocks.

Instruction in Language.—An eminent teacher writes:

> "The 'admirable letter' on instruction in language, in your December number, does not fully satisfy me. I still think that a didactic or systematic course of grammar is fit only for the more developed class of students, and that, previous to that condition of comparative development, they should, by practical drills in language, be trained to deduce, treasure up, and methodisd *their own grammatical observations*, so that when they come to study grammar proper, it shall not be to them a mere code of grammatical edicts promulgated by authority, but the systematic record of what they themselves have, in a great measure, discovered from their language-drills and exercises in sentence-building."

We called the letter referred to "admirable," not because we indorsed the writer's views fully, but because these views were presented clearly and in a practical manner. We agree to this extent, that *if* scientific grammar is to be taught early in the course, it should be taught *through* language; that practice and principle, as suggested, should be combined.

Married a Conjunction.—At a recent teachers' examination in Portage county, a spruce-looking young man parsed "married" in the sentence, "Adam the first man married Eve the first woman," as a *conjunction*, and, on being asked to explain, gave this lucid reason: "Married is a conjunction because it joins Adam and Eve as man and wife. Adam having married Eve, was joined to her; consequently 'married' is a conjunction because it joins persons or things together." He was recommended to keep away from school-houses except in the *conjunctive* relation of a pupil!

Fat Mutton Logic.—In the course of a discussion in the British Parliament in 1865, a Mr. Ball presented this overwhelming argument against a free-school system:

"If a national system of education is adopted, the children of my tenants will be sent to school; if the children of my tenants are sent to school, my turnips will not be weeded; if my turnips are not weeded, I shall eat fat mutton no more."

HOLIDAY INSTITUTES.—Institutes were held Christmas week at Cambridge, Jackson C. H., Findlay, Lima, and Troy. Some sixty teachers were present at Cambridge, and the exercises were pleasant and profitable. W. D. Henkle, of Salem, was the principal instructor. The county supervision measure and the township system were both approved, and several professional topics were discussed by the members. Mr. Henkle brought us *seventeen* subscribers.

The institute at Jackson C. H. was attended by from fifty to sixty teachers, to whom the occasion was one of great interest and profit. Capt. Wm. Mitchell, of this city, and Prof. W. H. Young, of Ohio University, were the instructors. Evening lectures were delivered by Messrs. Mitchell and Young, and C. S. Smart, Supt. of the schools of Jackson. Capt. Mitchell brought us *sixteen* subscribers.

We have not yet received reports from Troy and Lima. The report from Findlay is given below. The institute there was a decided success.

HANCOCK COUNTY INSTITUTE.—E. E. White, Esq.—Dear Sir: On the 24th, 25th, 26th, and 27th of December, 1867, an institute was held in this place; number of teachers in attendance, one hundred. The following gentlemen gave instruction during the entire session. Mr. R. W. Stevenson, Norwalk; Prof. Aaron Schuyler, of Baldwin University; Mr. E. F. Adams, Newburgh; and E. Miller, Findlay. We had the services of Mr. O. S. Cook, of Dayton, for a short time. The regularity in attendance, the interest manifested, and the large amount of practical matter imparted, all conspired to render this institute the best ever held in this county. Messrs. Schuyler and Stevenson gave evening lectures. Resolutions were passed, urging the passage of a law creating the office of county superintendent, and calling upon teachers to subscribe for some educational journal and directing their attention to the *Ohio Educational Monthly* as the *ne plus ultra* for the live and thorough-going teacher. I am happy to be able to send you *twenty-six* subscribers. The teachers of Hancock county send greetings to the noble teachers of the State.

Truly yours, E. MILLER.

Findlay, O., Dec. 31, 1867.

HAMILTON COUNTY INSTITUTE.—This institute met at Kuhn & Curran's school-room on the second Saturday of December. About fifty teachers were present. Mr. Turrill, of Cumminsville, presented the subject of writing. Mr. Geo. C. Woollard, of the Second District School, gave a lecture on reading, advocating the phonic method. He held that the vowels should be marked in primary readers to indicate the sound, and that reading should be the pronouncing of words *previously* learned and understood. The lecture was followed by an interesting discussion. Mr. Jno. L. Talbot, the only survivor of the first teachers' association in the county, related many interesting incidents connected with that association (formed in 1822), and also with the College of Teachers. Mr. John Edwards, of the Hughes High School (one of the "veteran"), made kindred remarks. Mr. Trimble, of Columbia, read an excellent essay on spelling, and Mr. Curran, the President, closed the meeting by calling for subscribers to the MONTHLY.

UPPER SANDUSKY.—The public schools are in charge of Mr. J. K. Myers, who has adopted the following plan to stimulate the pupils to greater industry and good conduct: Written examinations are held in all the departments at the close of each month, and a report is prepared exhibiting the standing of each pupil in the four upper grades, not only in scholarship, but also in attendance and deportment. The names of all pupils whose general average is 90 per cent. are written in red ink, and the names of those who fall below, in black ink. These successive reports are executed in an attractive style, neatly framed, and hung up in the school-room. The desire to have their names appear on the report in red ink, stimulates the pupils to great exertions. About forty per cent. of the pupils reach the requisite standard of excellence.—The board of education heartily co-operate with the superintendent and teachers in their efforts to improve the schools, and good progress is making. The schools enroll about 450 pupils.

NORWALK.—The public schools of this city are the pride of the citizens, and this public confidence is increasing year by year. The explanation of this state of things is found in the two-fold fact, that the schools are in excellent condition, and are managed with great tact and discretion. Few superintendents use more good common sense in school administration than Mr. Stevenson, and few have more to use. He not only secures the hearty co-operation of the board of education and teachers, but the school-patrons are brought into close alliance and interest. The one drawback on the success of the schools is the want of school-room adequate to accommodate the rapidly increasing population, the increase of youth of school age the past year being *three hundred.* To meet this want, in part, a new primary building has just been completed, and the proposition to erect a fine high school building is under discussion, and will soon be submitted to a vote of the people, who generally favor the movement.

AKRON.—The public schools are moving on successfully under the skillful guidance of Mr. I. P. Hole, who has stood faithfully at his present post for many years. The school population of Akron increased *four hundred* the past year, and the board of education expended about $20,000 to provide additional school rooms. The number of teachers now employed in the schools is twenty-two. All this is evidence of thrift and enterprise.

CINCINNATI.—The report of the School Board for the year ending June 30, 1867, has been on our table for several weeks. We have delayed an acknowledgment of its receipt, hoping to be able to spend a few hours in gleaning and interpreting some of the many instructive facts which are concealed in its mass of statistics. The reports of the President and Clerk of the Board, and of the retiring Superintendent, are each brief and pointed. They show a healthy and substantial progress in the schools. The new scale of teachers' salaries has worked well; and Supt. Harding pays a high compliment to the teachers for their zeal and success. He states that there has been improvement in modes of instruction, and that the teachers are anxious to make further improvement. To this end he urges that "a training school for teachers ought to form a part of the common school system of the city."——We have very favorable reports of Mr. Hancock's beginning as superintendent. He is doing an excellent work.

CLEVELAND FEMALE SEMINARY.—We are glad to notice that Mr. S. N. Sanford, the principal of this excellent institution, has returned from his voyage to Europe, and is again at his old post. He visited most of the countries of Southern Europe, and also Palestine and Egypt. The seminary has its full complement of students, and is generally prosperous. It deserves success.

COL. JOHN LYNCH.—Our good friend, Col. Lynch, for many years, previous to the war, superintendent of the schools of Circleville, O., and one of the leading educators of the State, is a member of the Constitutional Convention, now in session in New Orleans, and is chairman of the committee on education. On the 12th of December he submitted a minority report which, if adopted, will secure to Louisiana an excellent public school system. The New Orleans *Republican* of Dec. 16th, in a very complimentary biographical sketch of Col. Lynch, says that he is one of the ablest and most influential members of the body. He owns a large cotton plantation in the parish of Carroll, and is highly esteemed in the community. The *Republican* also pays a high compliment to Gen. W. L. McMillen, formerly of Columbus, O., who also represents the Carroll parish in the Convention.

BALTIMORE & OHIO R. R.—This railroad, extending from Baltimore to Columbus, is one of the longest railway lines, under one board of management, in the United States, and we know of no road that passes through a section of the country possessing greater interest to the traveler. In passing over the mountains it reaches the highest railroad altitude in the country, and the mountain scenery is the finest we have ever seen. We take pleasure in commending this route to any of our friends who may be going East.

CORRECTION.—In giving the number of our subscribers in graded schools, last month, we credited the *seven* subscribers belonging to Camp Washington to Cumminsville.

ENUMERATION FOR 1867–8.—The whole number of youth of school age in this State as enumerated in September last, is 1,019,195, being an increase of 44,892 since 1866. The number of colored youth is 25,131.

CHANGES.—W. A. C. Converse, for many years in charge of the Toledo High School, has accepted the principalship of the Central High School, Cleveland, O., at a salary of $2,500.——Theodore Meier has, on account of ill health, resigned his position as a teacher of German in the Camp Washington school.

OTHER STATES AND COUNTRIES.

TENNESSEE.—The annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association was held at Nashville, Nov. 13th and 14th. The attendance was large, the Hall of Representatives being well filled with delegates and visitors. Nearly two hundred pupils from the Fisk School occupied one of the galleries, and enlived the occasion with excellent music. Dr. Sears, agent of the Peabody Fund, was present, and delivered an able and practical address on the necessity of free public schools and the conditions of their success. He urged the importance of a State school department, and dwelt at considerable length on the absolute necessity of normal schools. He said that the importance of having trained teachers can hardly be overstated. Experience has demonstrated that one skillful teacher will accomplish as much as ten poor ones. In Massachusetts there was at first a strong prejudice against normal schools, but now they could not furnish enough teachers to meet the demand made upon them. He stated that the trustees of the Peabody Fund had determined to devote the same exclusively to the encouragement of free public schools. The available proceeds last year were $150,000.

Prof. John Ogden, President of Fisk University, delivered an eloquent address on the relation of the colored schools to the school system of the State. He urged that instead of attempting, with their scanty resources, to establish separate schools for white and colored youth in each district, but one system of schools should be organized, and these should be free to all youth without distinction on account of race, condition, or color. The address elicited a spirited discussion, in which most of the speakers opposed the co-education of the two races, Addresses were also delivered by Rev. Herman Bokum on the harmony between the educational and industrial interests of Tennessee, by Gov. Neill S. Brown, Mr. Lawrence, Supt. Public Schools of Nashville, Mr. Mitchell, Supt. Public Schools of Memphis, and others. An excellent letter from Gov. Brownlow was read.

An interesting feature of the meeting was the practical exhibition of methods of teaching. For this purpose classes from the schools of the city were introduced and drilled, and Prof. Ogden illustrated his mode of training teachers by an exercise with his normal class. The performance of these several classes gave great satisfaction.

A report on normal schools was read by Rev. Dr. Pearne, and a resolution was adopted requesting the Legislature to take action to secure the normal training of teachers. A resolution was also passed pledging cordial co-operation with Gen. John Eaton, State Supt. of Schools, and requesting the Legislature to increase his salary. Gen. Eaton is vigorously at work inaugurating the new school system. The task before him is one of great difficulty.

The next annual meeting of the Association is to be held at Memphis in October, and an adjourned meeting is to be held at Chattanooga in August.

CONNECTICUT.—The State Board of Education acted wisely when it placed at the head of its school system Hon. B. G. Northrop, for many years State Educational Agent of Massachusetts. He brought to the position eminent ability and a ripe experience in school affairs, and, notwithstanding the school system had been for many years deep in the ruts, he has already inaugurated a genuine educational revival. The series of State institutes, lately closed, were attended by a larger number of teachers and school officers, and with greater popular interest, than any similar series ever before held in Connecticut. Every minister in the State has been requested to preach a sermon on the subject of education, and educational addresses are to be given in every town and, if possible, in every school district. A new life and energy are, at last, vitalizing and rejuvenating the common schools of old Connecticut.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Reports from this State show what a live, experienced, and able educator can accomplish at the head of a State School Department. Superintendent Wickersham has spent much of his time, since his appointment, in the institutes and in addressing large and enthusiastic audiences in different parts of the State. He has also called to his assistance in the institute field five competent instructors and lecturers. The results of these well-directed efforts are large and progressive institutes, more zealous and intelligent efforts on the part of teachers and school officers, and an increased public interest in the schools. The *School Journal*, which is ably conducted by Hon. Thos. H. Burrowes, is sent, as heretofore, to each board of school directors in the State.

INDIANA.—We are in receipt of several letters from this State, which represent the institute work there as highly prosperous. The State Normal Institutes have greatly improved the character of the county institutes, many of which have been held. We hear good reports of the institute labors of our friend, Daniel Hough, formerly of the Cincinnati Schools.——The annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association was held at New Albany, December 25, 26, and 27. President Tuttle, of Wabash College, delivered the opening address, and papers, reports, and discussions on important educational topics followed. The meeting was one of great interest and profit.

NEBRASKA has been a State less than a year, and yet its State Teachers' Association has held one session, and a State Normal School has been located at Peru, on the Missouri river, and a building of brick, 80 feet by 40, and four stories high is nearly finished.

Austria.—A most remarkable teachers' convention was held a few weeks since at Vienna. It was attended by hundreds of teachers, from all parts of the empire. The principal question discussed was the cause of the low condition of the national elementary schools. A resolution was unanimously passed attributing this result chiefly to the jurisdiction exercised over these schools by the Church, and declaring that until such jurisdiction should be removed, there could be no hope of improvement. The discussion elicited the deepest interest, and bold declarations against priestly interference were received with shouts of approval. The government permitted the convention to exercise the utmost freedom in the expression of its sentiments. Truly the world moves!——The Common Council of Vienna propose to establish a teachers' institute, in which scientific instruction shall be given without respect to any creed, though not in opposition to any creed. This movement is opposed by the Church Prelates, but the Emperor sustains the Council.

BOOK NOTICES.

We have been unable to examine new books this month, and, consequently, depend on the favor of others for notices. We hope to do better next month.

Lord Bacon's Life and Essays with Boyd's Notes. By James R. Boyd. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1867.

Mr. Boyd did the public an excellent service several years ago by his editions of Miton, Young, Thomson, Cowper, and Pollock. The work mentioned above is the first of a series of English Prose Classics which he proposes to edit, if this shall receive sufficient encouragement. The whole number of Bacon's Essays, fifty-nine in all (the last, however, being only a fragment on Fame), are given, but only twenty-six are accompanied with notes. These Notes are, in the main, judicious, and serve to explain what is obscure and what is peculiar to the style of the seventeenth century. There are, however, expressions in these essays that Mr. Boyd ought to have made the occasions of instructive grammatical comment, but concerning which he has said nothing, although he has in many cases occupied space with useless notes as to the meanings of words which could be readily obtained by reference to either of the two great American dictionaries. In Essay XXIII (in the earliest editions the first) on "Studies," occurs the oft-quoted sentence "Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, etc." Mr. Boyd has judiciously made the following note on "Crafty men": "*Crafty men*"—not in the ordinary sense of 'cunning,' but men of craft, of manual occupations, of mechanical or other business." It is well that attention should be called to this now obsolete meaning of *crafty*, as the careless reader might mistake the meaning, especially if he did not know that it had ever been used in any other sense than the one it has at present. Indeed, a reference to Webster's recent dictionary does not bring out clearly Bacon's use of the term, and although Worcester marks an obsolete meaning, he gives it rather obscurely. The sketch of Bacon's life given in this volume does not attempt to cover up the disgraceful parts of his character.

This work by Mr. Boyd may not receive the hearty welcome that it should, because the refining influence of the best English Classics has not heretofore been as highly appreciated as it should be. Before the issue of another edition, Mr. Boyd should learn how to spell the name of England's most brilliant essayist, Macaulay, which occurs more than twenty times in the work and always with the spelling "*Macauley.*"

W. D. H.

Atwater's Manual of Elementary Logic. Published by J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia. 1867.

This little work of 244 pages is printed in excellent style on excellent paper. The author has done his work well by giving the principles of Logic in concise language unaccompanied by the usual pages and paragraphs of useless matter. He treats Logic as the Science of the Laws of Thought. In the appendix are given three methods of syllogistic notation, namely, Euler's by circles, that by straight lines, and Hamilton's. This is the first time that I have noticed that the Circle Method is due to Euler. It may be interesting to the reader to know, although Mr. Atwater does not state it, that Euler used this method in his letters to a German princess. Fifty-one combinations are found in Letters CII, CIII, CIV, and CV, dated 14th Feb., 17th Feb., 21st Feb., and 24th Feb., 1761. See pp. 450 to 469, Vol. I, of "Euler's Letters to a German Princess," London, 1795.

If the proper effort were made by the publishers to bring Mr. Atwater's small but scientific treatise to the attention of teachers of Logic, it would doubtless meet with an extensive sale, since the larger works are too cumbrous or abstruse for elementary instruction, and since but little time is or can be allotted in high schools and colleges to this branch of education.

[*Whately* is incorrectly spelled "Whateley."] W. D. H.

Manual of Anglo-Saxon for Beginners: Comprising a Grammar, Reader, and Glossary, with Explanatory Notes. By Prof. Shute, Columbia College, Washington. Cleveland: Ingham & Bragg.

This is is a (*mutatis mutandis*) pefect model of the kind of text-books I long to see introduced into our high schools and colleges. Within the compass of 190 pages, it contains all that a beginner needs to secure substantial knowledge of the *essentials* of the language, so that he shall not be debarred from buying it by its dearness nor discouraged by its size. With the help of this unpretending volume, he can, in a comparatively short time, make himself master of the subject, so as to be able afterward to follow it up through its ampler details. How different the case would be, if, to gratify his own vanity or pride of scholarship, the learned compiler had presented him with a big book stuffed with all the erudition that can be brought to bear on Anglo-Saxon language and literature! A few persistent students, blessed with leisure, might take it up and make themselves thorough Anglo-Saxon scholars; but the unselfish purpose of the author would be completely defeated—namely, to make the study of one of the sources of the noble English tongue so easy and so attractive that every one who lays claim to a liberal education, shall feel it his duty to make himself acquainted, at least, with its elements. T. E. S.

☞ Persons wishing information respecting text-books, maps, registers and records, school furniture, agencies, teachers, etc., etc., should read our advertising pages.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

Elements of Natural Philosophy. By Rolfe & Gillet. Boston: Crosby & Ainsworth. 1868.

Cambridge Course of Elementary Physics. Part III: Astronomy. By Rolfe & Gillet. Boston: Crosby & Ainsworth. 1868.

A Text-Book of Ethics. By Joseph Alden, D.D., LL.D. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

Origin and History of the Books of the Bible. By Prof. Calvin E. Stowe, D.D. Cincinnati: Zeigler, McCurdy & Co. (See advertisement.)

Mitchell's New Physical Geography. By Prof. John Brocklesby. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

Teacher's Guide to the Spencerian System. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1868.

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THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS.

BY PROF. WM. F. PHELPS.*

No part of a teacher's work is more important in its consequences than the proper organization of his school. He may be an exact scholar, apt to teach, and skillful in government, and yet if he be deficient in *organizing power*, his labor must be largely misdirected and his efforts must result in little less than failure.

This work is the more important because it is *fundamental.* It must, in the main, precede all other effective work because it is the condition precedent to efficient action in every direction. What is an army without organization? An undisciplined mob, to be scattered to the four winds in the first shock of battle. And what can a school be whose machinery is not carefully adapted to its intended purposes, and so adjusted and operated as to secure its peculiar and beneficent ends?

What more practical or useful subject, then, can arrest the attention of teachers than school organization? And how can one more effectually "help the teachers," especially of our country schools, than in the systematic elucidation of a topic like this?

It is an old maxim that "work well begun is half done." To no calling does this sentiment apply with greater force than that of training human beings. Hence the school work should be well begun. It should, indeed, be "begun, *continued* and *ended*" in a clear and intelligent perception of its true nature and objects, and with a ready command of all the forces and appliances needful to the realization of those objects. In other words, a teacher must understand his business from the beginning, and he must be possessed of the sagacity, tact, and skill necessary to compass all the requisites to success, if he would *reap* success.

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* Principal of State Normal School, Minnesota.

Let us inquire what these requisites are:

I. *Before engaging his services, a teacher should always carefully consider the question of his adaptation to the particular locality and school which he proposes to serve.*

This precaution is far too generally neglected, especially by young teachers. Anxious to secure a situation, they are too willing to accept one at first sight, and without taking the trouble to ascertain whether they are equal to the demands which may be made upon them in the school, whether they are suited to the peculiar circumstances of the neighborhood or to the disposition of the inhabitants. Many of the reputed failures of young teachers are attributable to this cause. Possessed, it may be, of talent, scholarship, and all save that which special training and experience alone can give, were they carefully to weigh their qualifications in the light of an accurate knowledge of the condition and circumstances of the district and the school under consideration, they might avoid the mortification and disgrace of failure by undertaking only that which a rational estimate of their professional capabilities would enable them to carry to a successful issue.

As a general rule, young teachers *should avoid taking schools that are large, far advanced, or difficult to discipline.* They should rather seek those of an opposite character. They should locate in neighborhoods where they can be assured of the steady and intelligent support of the school officers and the people. They should especially aim *not to fail, but to succeed in their earlier attempts*, for early failures are peculiarly depressing. They exert a powerful influence upon the future of the teacher, often driving him from a profession which he is really fitted to adorn. And on the other hand, nothing so encourages and strengthens a success in a noble work. It awakens a generous enthusiasm. It inspires to greater exertion. It allures to higher conquests. It stimulates to heroic effort. It often enkindles the latent fires of genius, whose light may shine far down into the remotest ages.

II. *The study of the question of adaptation should be mutual on the part of the school officers and the teacher.*

The responsibility of failure in a school is quite as often chargeable upon the *school trustees* and parents as upon the teacher. In multitudes, perhaps in a majority of cases, the primary motive in the employment of a teacher is a pecuniary and sordid one. The leading question is not "how competent," but "how cheap are you?" If the school be small or backward, "*anybody* will do to keep it." Or whether it be large or small, whether it be difficult or easy to discipline, whether the neighborhood be at peace or at war, whether its inhabitants are appreciative or unappreciative, whether they are ready to support or discourage the teacher in the adoption of suitable measures for conducting the school, and last but not least, whether the candidate before them is especially adapted to the condition and circumstances of the school and the neighborhood, are questions which usually give school district officers very little concern. They bargain for a failure by bargaining for cheapness, and by raising few questions as to the competency, or special adaptation, and the result is that they get what they bargain for; while the poor teacher alone must bear upon himself the odium of failure. The truth is, however, that, in a majority of cases, the patrons and the trustees of our schools are quite as responsible for the failures that occur therein as are the teachers they carelessly employ, and then neglect to encourage and support either morally or materially.

III. *When negotiating for a school, teachers should always make known to the employing officers the views which will control them in its organization, discipline, and instruction, and the contract should bind the officers to the support of such measures as may be in accordance with these views.*

Nothing can be more vague and uncertain than the agreements usually made between teachers and school officers. These agreements really often invite to *dis*agreements by their omissions, by their general looseness, and by their merely verbal character. They can not be called contracts in any proper sense.

This fact is the foundation of most of the difficulties which arise in the management of a school. The teacher, perhaps, has studied his profession more or less. Observation and experience have given him some clear ideas as to the best methods of conducting his school. Perhaps he is a graduate of a normal school, or has been for some years a regular attendant upon teachers' institutes. If so, his views are quite likely to be in advance of the old time notions of the patrons of his school. He believes in order and precision in the operations of a school. He has acquainted himself with the best modern improvements in methods of teaching and government. He deplores irregularity of attendance among his pupils as destructive alike of their best interests and of the highest efficiency of the school. He believes in blackboards, maps, charts, and globes, and has learned how to use them.

But if he attempts any innovations upon obsolete ideas, or if he seeks to reform old abuses, he is quite likely to be beset by breakers. The children, unable to see far enough ahead to discover the utility of the measures necessary to effect much needed improvements, become impatient of wholesome restraint and of the persistent effort requisite to accomplish the labor assigned to them. Their complaints are whispered in the ears of willing parents who are opposed to "new fangled notions," and who are often too ready to interfere with the prerogatives of the teacher. Perhaps the superficial character of the instruction hitherto imparted in the school, has rendered it necessary to classify the pupils lower than formerly, or to assign them studies less pretentious than they have heretofore pursued. This touches the pride of child and parent alike, and adds fuel to the flame of opposition, which at last overwhelms the teacher and he surrenders to a superior force. In other words, *he fails*, and his mishap is heralded in every direction, injuring his reputation, disgusting him with the profession, and perchance driving him to some other pursuit. Now, in most cases, these difficulties could be prevented by a perfect understanding, by a full and free interchange of views between the teacher and his employers in the outset, and by a contract duly executed upon the basis of such understanding. The school officers and inhabitants of a district should be apprized beforehand, in the manner described, of such changes and improvements as may be rendered necessary by the advent of a new teacher professing to be skilled in his work, and they are thus committed in advance to the new policy by virtue of the final engagement made between him and their representatives, the trustees. The neglect of such precautions is believed to be the prolific cause of most of the troubles arising between the teacher and his patrons in consequence of his action in the organization and administration of his school. To observe them is to apply the "ounce of prevention." To neglect them, is almost to invite the evils which tend to alienate the sympathy and support due to the teacher, and to disorganize an institution designed to be a perpetual blessing to all who are brought within the sphere of its influence.

Having established the foregoing propositions as preliminary to the discussion of the main subject, we shall aim in future articles to suggest the necessary steps by which a school may be brought into a condition best suited to the accomplishment of its benign purposes, through a systematic and efficient organization.

POSSESSIVE CASE.—No. 1.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

[Mr. Henkle has for seventeen years been observing closely the manner of writing the possessive singular of nouns ending in the sound of *s* or *z*. Nine years ago he published the results of his investigations, up to that time, in a series of articles, in the Indiana *School Journal*. These articles not being accessible to our readers, he has consented to revise them with the aid of additional investigations and publish them in the MONTHLY.—EDITOR.]

"When a noun in the possessive case ends in *ce*, the apostrophe only is retained; as, For *conscience'* sake."—*Hull's Grammar*, Pittsburgh, 1836, p. 35.

"When the nominative singular ends in *ce*, the possessive is sometimes formed by merely adding the apostrophie; as, *conscience'* sake."—*An English Grammar*, Dublin, 1845, p. 23.

"When the name ends in *ce*, the apostrophic *s* is not added; as, *conscience'* sake."—*Frazee's Grammar*, Philadelphia, 1846, p. 26.

"When the noun ends in *ce*, the *s* is sometimes omitted, if the following word begins with *s* or contains an *s* or *z* in the first syllable; as, *Conscience'* sake."—*Weld's Grammar*, Portland, 1848, p. 72.

"Many nouns ending in the singular in *ce*, add the apostrophe only. He suffered for *conscience'* sake."—*Clark's New Grammar*, New York, 1848, p. 50.

These statements are disproved by the following examples:

"T. Pearce's."—*A Journal of Grattan's Life*, p. 134, 1720.

"Wace's romance."—*De Vere's Comp. Philology*, p. 162.

"A justice's court."—*Locke Amsden*, p. 52.

"Eustace's Tour."—*Tuckerman's Characteristics of Literature*, second series, p. 195.

"In our race's infancy."—*Nichol on the Solar System*, p. 22.

"Greece's domain."—*Campbell's Poems*, p. 180.

"Wallace's own stream."—*Ibid*, p. 203.

"Squire Paice's grand dinner."—*Maiden and Married Life of Mary Powell*, p. 103.

"Price's edition."—*Smithsonian Con. to Knowledge*, vol. 8, p. 10.

"Bruce's saw-mill."—*Owen's Geol. Survey of Wisconsin, etc.*, p. 459.

"Bruce's new work."—*Putnam's Mag.*, vol. , p. 693.

"Rice's amendment."—*Gent. Mag.*, new series, vol. I, p. 642, 1834.

"Horace's most splendid odes."—*Ibid.*, 399.

"Horace's friends."—*Ibid.*, 484.

"Price's tour."—*Ibid.*, vol. 2, p. 407.

"Price's knowledge."—*Ibid.*, p. 602.

"La Force's party."—*Irving's Washington*, vol. I, p. 117.

"Force's Am. Archives."—*Ibid.*, vol. II, pp. 39, 189, 190, 319, 320, 330; vol. III, p. 380.

"Wallace's ships."—*Ibid.*, vol. II, p. 127.

"Yet when they're at their race's ends."—*Hudibras*, p. 204.

> "A wight, by hungry fiend made bold,
> To farmer Fitz-Maurice's fold,
> Did slyly creep."—*Zachos's Speaker*, p. 348.

"Fitz-Maurice's construction."—*An. Sci. Dis.*, 1850, p. 28.

"Prof. Peirce's theory."—*Ibid.*, p. 161.

"Bruce's" occurs nine times in *Brown's Grammar of English Grammars;* "Brace's," seven times; and "Peirce's," ninety-nine times.

"The voice's flow."—*Josselyn's Pronunciation*, p. 10.

"Horace's slaves."—*Smart's Horace*, vol. 2, p. 195.

"Horace's" occurs in this work in seven other places; also on p. 73 of *Curran and his Contemporaries;* p. 17, vol. 1 of *Francis's Horace:* in numerous places in the different volumes of the *Gentleman's Magazine*, in *Macaulay's Essays*, etc. "Mr. Douce's" occurs more than twenty times in the *Gentleman's Magazine.*

"Grace's letters."—*Putnam's Mag.*, vol. 3, p. 223.

"Your Grace's station."—*Junius's Letters*, vol. 1, p. 197.

"Your Grace's" occurs in at least nine other places in this work. For "Laplace's," see *Humboldt's Cosmos*, vol. 1, pp. 48 and 301, vol. 4, p. 157; *An. Sci. Dis.*, 1853, p. 369; *Pro. of Am. Asso. for the Advancement of Sci.*, Aug. 17, 1849, p. 220; *Foot-Prints of the Creator*, pp. 252 and 253; *Correl. of Forces*, pp. 307, 320.

"The niece's possession."—*Sir Wm. Hamilton's Metaphysics*, p. 240.

"Dyce's edition."—*G. P. Marsh's Lectures*, p. 651.

For "Dyce's," see *Gent. Mag.*, new series, vol. 6, pp. 240 and 343, vol. 7, pp. 449 and 562; *Putnam's Mag.*, vol. 3, p. 282; and *Irving's Washington*, vol. 1, p. 651.

"Your Grace's desires."—*Lowthorp's Abridgment of Phil. Trans.*, 1732, vol. 1, p. 564.

"Wilberforce's view."—*Ency. of Relig. Knowl.*, p. 85.

"Wilberforce's" may also be found twice in vol. 10 of the *Gent. Mag.*, in vol. 11, p. 1, and vol. 18. p. 1.

"Dr. Price's reasonings."—*D. Stewart's Works*, vol. 2, p. 187.
"Wace's."—*Craik's Eng. Lit. and Lang.*, vol. 1, pp. 135, 201.

"Nouns ending in *nce* form the possessive by adding the apostrophe only; as, 'For *conscience*' sake.' "—*R. C. Smith's Grammar*, p. 47, Phil., 1837.

This assertion is disproved by the following examples of the possessive case of nouns ending in *nce :*

"John Raunce's."—*Hist. of Ellwood's Life*, 1714, p. 22.

"Mrs. Bounce's ball."—*Putnam's Mag.*, vol. 1, pp, 70 and 73.

" 'Twas iron-work upon commission,
For a romance's first edition."
—*Curran and his Contemporaries*, p. 321.

"I heard the lance's shivering crash,
As when the whirlwind rends the ash."—*Sir Walter Scott.*

"Constance's intent."—*Campbell's Poems*, p. 45.

"Vince's Fluxions."—*Vince's Fluxions*, American Preface.

"The King of France's picture."—*Gent. Mag.*, vol. 21, p. 151.

"France's liberal hand."—*Littell's Living Age*, vol. 44, p. 643.

"Dunce's disciples."—*Trench on the Study of Words*, p. 91.

"First give thy faith and plight a prince's word."—*Pope's Homer*, p. 24.

"The world's applause, perhaps the prince's smile."—*Locke Amsden*, p. 44.

"Prince's Digest."—*Gram. of Eng. Grammars*, and *Key to Uncle Tom's Cabin*, p. 242.

For numerous instances of "prince's," see *Plutarch's Lives, Spectator, Alton Locke, Putnam's Mag., Hume's Hist. of England, Tacitus, etc.*

"Held me a pattern to the dunce's sight."—*Henry Kirk White.*

"Peter Quince's playbill."—*Macaulay's Essays*, vol. 2, p. 305.

"When a noun in the possessive case ends in *ence*, the *s* is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained; as, 'For *conscience*' sake.' "—*Kirkham's Grammar*, Cin., 1830, p. 49.

"When the word ends in *ence*, the *s* should be omitted; as, 'for *conscience*' sake'; but, observe, the apostrophe is used."—*Ingersoll's Grammar*, p. 26, Phil., 1834.

"*Singular* nouns ending in *ence*, have only an apostrophe added; as, 'For conscience' sake.' "—*Teeters's Grammar*, p. 42, Canton, Ohio, 1836.

"In words ending in *ence*, the apostrophic *s* is commonly dropped even in the singular; as, 'For conscience' sake.' "—*Pond's Murray's Grammar*, p. 23, Worcester, 1831.

These assertions are disproved by the following examples:

"Clarence's dream."—*Beauties of Shakespeare*, p. 154.

"Clarence's death."—*Putnam's Mag.*, vol. 1, p. 70.

"Florence's" [eating-house].—*Knickerbocker Mag.*

"Offence's gilded hand may shove by justice."—*Hamlet, Act* 3, *Scene* 4.

"A pardon for the offence's sake."—*Hudibras*, p. 288.

"Terence's comedy."—*Smart's Horace*, vol. 2, p. 19.

"What will be each evidence's share."—*Ladies' Diary*, vol. 2, p. 48.

"Ah me! your reverence's sister,
Ten times I carnally have——kissed her."—*Allan Ramsay.*

"Thus sprung some doubt of Providence's sway."—*Parnell's Hermit.*

"And sweet Benevolence's mild command."—*Lord Lyttleton.*

"Though boiling beneath a fierce tropical sun,
Or on Lawrence's gridiron very near done."
—*Episodes of Insect Life*, vol. 1, p. 141.

For "Lawrence's," see also *Smyth's Un. Hum. Races*, p. 125; *Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge*, vol. 8, pp. 73 and 92; *Cosmos*, vol. 1, pp. 125, 128, 129, and 135; *Dict. of Americanisms*, p. 214; *Gent. Mag.*, vol. 6, p. 636, vol. 10, p. 43, vol. 11, p. 113, vol. 20, p. 113.

"William Laurence's."—*A Journal of Grattan's Life*, 1720, p. 132.

"And there she shall, at Friar Laurence's cell,
Be shriv'd and married."—*Romeo and Juliet*, *Act* 2, *Scene* 5.

"Mr. Spence's papers."—*De Morgan's Calculus*, p. 659.

For "Spence's," see also *Smart's Horace*, vol. 1, p. 27; *Gent. Mag.*, vol. 16, p. 225, vol. 17, p. 345.

"Florence's performance."—*Craik's Eng. Lit. and Lang.*, vol. 1, p. 99.

Should any one now, to avoid all these examples, make the assertion that the *s* should be omitted after the apostrophe in the possessive singular of all nouns ending in *ience*, I should answer that *Experience's work* and *Patience's bonnet* ought to be used in preference to *Experience' work* and *Patience' bonnet.* The assertion would not be correct even if *cience* or *science* should be substituted for *ience*, as the following example from *Saxe's Poems*, p. 189, shows:

"Who guided our feet over Science's bogs,
And led us quite safe through Philosophy's fogs."

It will not even do to apply the assertion to all nouns ending in *c-o-n-s-c-i-e-n-c-e. Harper's Mag.*, vol. 9, p. 5, has "*Conscience's Tales*," and *conscience's* is said to be found in *Dr. Wardlaw's Christian Ethics*, probably before some other word than *sake.* I should write *for Mr. Conscience's sake* in preference to *for Mr. Conscience' sake.*

The correct rule is: Every *common* noun ending in *c-o-n-s-c-i-e-n-c-e* followed by *sake*, forms its possessive singular by adding an apostrophe only; as,

"For gospel-light and conscience' sake."—*Hudibras*, p. 83.

"Conscience' sake" is also found in *Motley's Dutch Republic*, vol. 3, p. 269; *Prescott's Philip the Second*, vol. 1, pp. 132, 382, vol. 2, p. 225; and doubtless in many works besides the grammars.

It is questionable whether we should write *convenience' sake* or *convenience's sake.* I have noticed the following examples of the former:

"When he sits down, he's standing up,
As Paddy Quinn once said;
And for convenience' sake, he wears
His eyes a' top his head."
—*The Song of the Frog*, *Harper's Mag.*, vol. 8, p. 855.

It is also found on p. 35, of *Hull's Grammar* and in *Beecher's Life Thoughts.*

The *Atlantic Monthly* in quoting from *Life Thoughts* the passage containing "*convenience' sake,*" gives it "*convenience's sake.*" "*Convenience's sake* also occurs on p. 92 of Prof. W. D. Whitney's recent work entitled "*Language and the Study of Language.*"

I will refer more particularly to this point in a future article.

USEFUL EDUCATION.

Of course every man of thorough discipline and careful thought will esteem all education useful. The mind truly educated finds still further education and profit in the study of new and fresh truths. Such a mind will find constant occasion for the application of truth to life. In some way or other every known thing will prove practically valuable. Or, even if this were not so, still it is an object, with the man of true education, to know. All knowledge adds breadth and comprehensiveness to his views of nature and of the Author of nature. All knowledge, therefore, makes him more a man—a better specimen and example of manly growth and dignity.

Varied knowledge, also, is beneficial,—not merely knowledge of one or a few subjects; for the mind needs balance and symmetry as well as mere growth. The educated mind aims to classify all knowledge. Whatever is learned, in whatever manner, sets the scientific abilities at work, and feeds the mind with solid food, and with genuine satisfaction also. If it be said that there are men of great learning but of little practical ability in life—and if this be said in derogation of learning—it is easy to find a reply. It may be said that there are many more men who have considerable practical ability to succeed in life, so far as a livelihood is concerned, but who have very little true knowledge. Shall we, therefore, reason that practical tact is useless? What multitudes there are who have acquired facility in some mechanical handicraft, and so make a living,—just as the blind horse has learned to pull the wheel around. Try them out of their beat, and they are nobody. It may be said too, that the man who is educated in theories but not trained in the practical affairs of life, is deficient and one-sided in his development. He is not a fair example of truly educated men.

Now, all this is very plain and common-place to people who have anything like true education. But not to everybody. The race of fogies is very tenacious of life. It is by no means extinct. Numbers of this race are fathers and mothers; and they are constantly deciding the question how much education their children shall have before leaving school finally, to learn some employment for a livelihood. They shut off thousands upon thousands of youth from pursuing the "higher branches" of study, because they think algebra, geometry, chemistry, and the like studies, will be of no use to farmers and mechanics and laborers. Parents have even objected to their children studying geography, because they could see no practical benefit in it.

Numbers of the fogy race are school directors. Their influence constantly tends to depress the standard of qualifications which teachers are required to attain, and, of course, to depress the schools of which they have direction. They do not care for a teacher who is able to impart instruction in the "higher branches," for they think them of no practical use. And some specimens of the genus fogy are even attempting to exercise the vocation of teaching. Of course what they do not know is not worth knowing, and they impress upon their pupils the uselessness of knowledge which they can not immediately use in making money. As recently as January, 1868, a gentleman went from Ohio to a considerable town in Michigan in pursuit of the Commissioners of a certain county—for a business purpose. Stopping at a hotel he inquired of the landlord if that place was the county-seat. Bonaface said he did not know. Question second inquired if there were any newspapers published in the county. Mr. landlord did n't know that. Question third was, "Who are the Commissioners?" He did n't know there were any such gentlemen. "But, for whom did you vote, for that office, last fall?" He "voted the ticket, but did n't know whose names were on it." Now this man might be able to "keep tavern," to turn a glass of whisky, or care for a guest's horse. But he was a very poor specimen of a man, or of a citizen. His estimate of the amount of knowledge that is useful was very low. Consequently he will never rise to a position where he will secure the respect and esteem of those who know him.

And, in general, the result of a low estimate of the education that is really useful is that multitudes spend their whole life in the drudgery of mere manual toil, with no intellectual development, and no satisfaction of mind in their labor. People suppose that when a young man has learned to "read, write, and cypher," he has education enough to prepare him for any agricultural or mechanical employment, and anything more is time and study thrown away. But they are mistaken. There is many a lady, of sweet voice, and good musical gifts by nature, who has never mastered the science of music. Such an one can sing—*well*, if you please—what she has learned by rote: but having no knowledge of the principles of melody, or of harmony, or of the art of reading notes, her musical powers and her enjoyment of music must be greatly circumscribed. A thorough musical education would be extremely useful to her. With it she would be a nobler, more finished, more useful woman; and she could rise in the world. *It is always unworthy and depressing to any one to labor in any calling without understanding the principles he is making use of.* For instance, the druggist employs the laws and principles of chemistry. He ought to *study chemistry*, and not be satisfied merely to learn by manual experience such chemical combinations as he may have use for. The druggist and the physician have occasion to use a considerable nomenclature formed of Greek and Latin words. Would not a knowledge of these tongues make that nomenclature vastly more easy, more significant to them, besides the satisfaction of feeling that they were *going to the bottom* of the subject, not merely dabbling with the surface? The carpenter, the cabinet-maker, the wagon-maker, the mill-right, constantly perform operations involving the principles of geometry; yet very few of these mechanics have ever studied geometry, or know anything about it. They learn their various handicrafts, like the uncultivated musician, "by rote." Require them to do anything outside of their beaten path, and they are unable to do it. They do not understand the principles of their own calling. Were they acquainted with algebra and geometry, and trigonometry, if possible, their skill would be greatly increased, and there would be mental growth connected with their work. To the machinist and engineer, the thorough study of natural philosophy also would be especially useful. The surveyor and civil engineer *must* understand trigonometry and logarithms. But why should such a beautiful, easy, delightful subject be so great a mystery to the multitudes? And why should the common almanac be an unfathomed mystery to the people? Why should not all aspire to comprehend all there is in it? Why should not all aspire to be astronomers? Here we step out upon the great subject of the general diffusion of useful knowledge. All knowledge, truly such, is useful. All true education is useful. Why do we not all believe in witchcraft and charms, and all the superstitions of the heathen? Simply because we have studied nature and her processes, we have learned some of the relations of causes to their effects, we have learned to think and to reason. It is useful to every one of us to live in an educated community.

Connected with a low estimate of the amount of education that can be turned to useful account, is a thorough misconception of the nature of education, and of the character of the life for which a young person should be fitted. The parent should understand that real education is the judicious and symmetrical culture of all his child's powers—physical, intellectual, moral. He should know that every subject of study that adds to his stores of information—*i. e.*, his inward, mental formation—and teaches him to think rightly, simply makes this culture more complete. The parent should not destine his child to a tread-mill life, as if he could desire no more than to fit himself into some furrow of slavish toil where he can earn dollars and bread while he lives, and then die when he has worn out his muscles and his bones. Rather should he fit him for growing intelligence, that in his toil he may ever be making himself more a man, and that he may not be compelled to wear the harness of slavish, unintellectual labor.

But a great deal of manual toil, and that hard, must be done. Yet it does not follow that it must be done by ignorant, uneducated people. When all shall lay hold on education as their right, their duty, and a blessing to them whatever their occupation, then, of course, the distinction between educated and uneducated classes will melt away. Or, to state this result in other terms, the appreciation and attainment of thorough education by all, means *the unspeakable elevation of the laboring classes.* This will bring the aristocracy of money to a collapse; make labor ever honorable and honored as it ought to be. There is no real education that is not useful.

This does not essay to be an exhaustive treatment of the subject. These are only a few germs of thought. If the theme could be treated thoroughly, it would require volumes of illustration; and, at each step, it would be still more manifest, that all education is useful, directly or indirectly. There is no rule justified by the importance of the subject but this, that we attain for ourselves, and give to the young, all the education that is possible. E. B.

SCHOOL REGULATIONS TO PREVENT TARDINESS.

[Our readers need not be told that "Superintendent" affixed to this brief address, stands for M. F. Cowdery, the veteran superintendent of the Sandusky schools. We copy from the *Register* :]

Parents and Patrons of the Sandusky Public Schools:

Please to consider the following statements :

1. Disregard of punctuality tends to a dissolute habit of mind, and diminishes a pupil's chance of success in life.
2. Tardy pupils fall behind their classes.
3. Tardy pupils, who lose the morning and afternoon opening explanations of teachers, often lose the most valuable lesson of the day.
4. Tardy pupils do great injustice to the prompt pupils, by taking a portion of the time of the teacher to hear their excuses.
5. The example of every tardy pupil is damaging in its tendency upon the habits of all prompt pupils.
6. Tardy pupils wrong all parties by failing to hear all daily duties explained, and thereby failing to move along in sympathy with the school.

Conclusion.—That no school can possibly be a first-class school where tardiness is permitted.

REMEDIES.

1. Appeals to the sense of duty in pupils, in connection with right parental authority, make six-tenths of the school uniformly punctual.
2. Regard for the teacher's wishes will secure one-tenth more.
3. Privation of school privileges of all sorts, for tardiness, may secure one-tenth more.
4. Finally, there will remain a fraction—say two-tenths—that none of the foregoing remedies will reach. Please especially to consider the remedy suggested for the last two-tenths. This is

it: *No admission for any tardy scholars.* Such a rule will save at least one-tenth more, making in the aggregate nine-tenths of the pupils saved to punctuality, and at least fifteen per cent. added to the general usefulness of the schools besides. The remaining tenth who can not, or who will not learn and practice this first lesson of success in life—punctuality—have probably the elements of misfortune in them already, and will likely carry them through life in defiance of all that the best schools of the country can do for their relief. But will not such a regulation meet with opposition? Of course it will. But who will oppose it? The eight-tenths of parents whose children are punctual, will certainly have no occasion to oppose it. But will not such a rule exclude more pupils from the advantages of school than it will benefit? This is a question to be settled, not by reasoning, but by *facts;* and school statistics show that both a higher percentage of attendance is secured and more hours of instruction given under a stringent rule of punctuality than under a lax one.

Here is the rule of the Board, carefully drawn seven years since, to meet the views of a very sensitive public:

> ART. VI.—*Tardiness of Pupils.*—Pupils guilty of tardiness, without satisfactory excuse, shall, after the second offense, forfeit the privileges of school for the half day on which the tardiness occurs, and, in case of exclusion under the rule, the teacher shall cause notice thereof, and the reasons therefor, to be given to the parent or guardian immediately.

Our schools number from seventy to one hundred and fifty pupils each. By the above rule, each pupil may be tardy twice during any term, and stand handsomely shielded by "The Constitution." This will make from one hundred and forty to three hundred cases of "reserved rights" in each school to be endured, while that most convenient, most elastic, ever remembered phrase, "*without satisfactory excuse to the teacher,*" comes in to meet every other contingency that can possibly arise to make habits of indolence and slatternly domestic arrangements square with school discipline.

Having marched backward seven years under the foregoing rule, it is respectfully submitted that article 6, "Tardiness of Pupils," be henceforth "retired" with the depreciated currency, and that the following "gold certificate" be substituted in its place:

> ART. VI.—*Punctuality of Scholars.*—The doors of the public school rooms will be opened for the admission of pupils at 8.30 A.M., and 1.15 P.M., and will be closed to the admission of pupils at 8:50 A.M., and 1:30 P.M. (The town clock to decide the time.)

SUPERINTENDENT.

TEXT-BOOKS FOR OUR HIGH SCHOOLS AND WESTERN COLLEGES.

E. D. M.'s* eloquent article in the December number tempts me to suggest a practical solution of the question at issue. Far be it from me, even if I were an opponent, to venture to break a lance with so valiant a champion; but seeing that, in the main, I agree with him, still less disposed am I unprofitably to reiterate, in my own weaker style, the arguments on which he has stamped, in words of power, the impress of his own originality. Perhaps the difficulty might be removed, and the views of both parties might be reconciled, if the advocates of classical training would only consent to lay aside their cumbrous grammars bursting with erudition, and give us instead more *compendious* and more attractive elementary manuals, (I do not mean more *superficial*—a totally different thing!) to drill learners in the essentials of Greek and Latin construction. Each grammatical lesson should be accompanied by a practical illustration of Latin prose, made as interesting as possible, for translation into English, and of English to be turned into Latin, with suitable notes (not too many) and a vocabulary. Now we already have admirable text-books on that very plan: I mean the greatly improved editions of T. K. Arnold's original books, published in this country by McClintock, Spenser, and Harkness. (I will not presume to decide which of the three is the best.) Yet it seems to me an unfavorable indication of the estimation in which these excellent manuals are held by the scholastic public, that Professor Harkness has, I fear, found it expedient to fall back into the old rut, and, as it were, to supersede his own beautiful First Latin Book by giving us a Reader on the old-fashioned plan, and no better than its predecessors, made up like them of detached sentences either dry or hard to understand for want of connection. He seems to have thus abandoned the fundamental principle of his prototype, T. K. Arnold, of England, that, to secure a sound and lasting knowledge of a language, translation from that language into the vernacular and from the latter into the former, should go hand in hand *through the whole course.*

Next, instead of elaborate editions of Cæsar, Virgil, Xenophon's Anabasis, the Iliad, etc., with a formidable array of notes,

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* The widely known initials E. D. M. made me at first ascribe that essay to *him* of the Cincinnati *Gazette*—no mean compliment to the actual writer, I take it

(a very oppressive and unnecessary tax on the poor scholar, since he is expected to study only a portion of each author,) why not provide the learner with a moderate book of extracts, illustrated by judicious notes, not too multitudinous nor alarmingly erudite? Here again we have, in Latin at least, a selection which nearly comes up to my idea. I mean Hanson's Extracts of Latin Prose and Verse in two independent volumes. Would that the editor or some one else would give us two similar volumes of Greek extracts! I said that Hanson's book nearly comes up to my idea: my objection to it is that its extracts are too long and confined to too few authors. In this I am well aware that, in obedience to the tyranny of custom and to ensure the sale of his book, the editor has thought himself compelled to restrict himself to three or four authors in each volume and to inflict on us long doses of Cæsar's sanguinary wars; whereas, if he had felt himself at liberty to make his own selection, without having before his eyes the awful frowns of college principalities and powers, what delightful tit-bits he might have picked out of Livy, Quintus Curtius, Terence, etc., etc.! I have no hesitation in affirming that a scholar drilled in such a course would, in half the time, carry with him from school not only a really more substantial and durable knowledge of the structure and genius of those grand languages of Greece and Rome, but also no slight idea of their choicest literature, the humanizing influence of which would follow him through life, since

"A thing of beauty is a joy for ever."

Afterward, if time, taste, capacity, and opportunity favored, he might complete the work begun by supplying the omitted minutiæ, and giving the whole an artistic finish.

In like manner, let the champions of a scientific course whose plea every rational educator must admit, discard those elaborate treatises, a large portion of which, cramped as we are for time, we must either skim or skip over, and let them condescend to compose for us other text-books, short and pretty, adapted to our wants. As an example of what I mean, I would mention a compendium of Natural History by Gould & Agassiz, Dr. Worthington Hooker's Physiology, etc.

I am glad that two teachers of the Cambridge High School, Mass., have set a wholesome example in this direction, by the recent publication of compact and luminous abstracts of the elements of Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, etc., intended to open the way for future investigation of the details of those sciences. To these has just been added an attractive looking volume on Astronomy, which I have not yet examined. T. E. S.

HOW I TAUGHT READING FIFTY YEARS AGO.

BY WM. SLOCOMB, ROCHESTER, N. Y.

I had, in my school, two principal reading classes, conducted as follows: The classes took their places for reading, standing erect in a line. The natural and easy position of the body, is indispensable to full and distinct enunciation. Half the reading lessons were from some compend of history, as Whelpley's or Goldsmith's; or, sometimes, from some geography or history then in use. The other half was uniformly from the New Testament. There were at that time no series of readers, as now, for schools; and whether their adoption in our schools for the reading of the higher classes is an improvement, I think is questionable. Both classes had a short reading lesson, at least once each day. The second class read from the spelling-book, or some book containing a spelling exercise, spelling the same in addition. When the reading of a few lines by each member of a class was finished, the books were closed, and the scholar at the head asked a question from the lesson to the one next to him, which, if not answered correctly, was passed to the next, till it was so answered, when the successful scholar passed to the one who propounded the question, and thus through the class. This practice was greatly beneficial to the scholars, as it induced careful attention in reading; and a great amount of valuable information was then treasured up, which would have been lost by careless reading. I am aware that some object to the Testament as a reading-book, but were my life at stake for success, I would use it, at least, one half the time. In it can be found all the variety needed for teaching reading, and a judicious selection is easily made.

I uniformly had a half hour's exercise in spelling each day, by all the scholars, just before closing the school at evening; and while the scholars were laying aside their books for the day, and taking their places for that purpose, I commenced reciting the multiplication table in a distinct audible voice, in which all were required to join in concert. By that exercise the whole table, in a short time, became quite familiar to all the scholars, and that too without spending any other time for the purpose.

School Officers' Department.

We are in receipt of several letters expressing great interest in this department of the Monthly. We desire that it may contain many suggestions of practical value in the management of sub-district schools, and, to this end, we solicit from school directors brief communications, questions, hints, etc. Send your ideas or queries expressed in the fewest possible words. If necessary we will put them in shape for the printer.

THE TEXT-BOOK QUESTION.

A subscriber suggests that the boards of school examiners of the several counties of the State, with the advice of the State School Commissioner, adopt, and give due notice of such action, certain series of text-books from which to select questions for the examination of applicants for a teacher's certificate,—and he backs up this suggestion by eight reasons concisely stated in its favor. It strikes us that instead of examining teachers by selecting questions from particular text-books, examiners should carefully avoid such an error. It is their duty to ascertain how well the applicant understands the several branches of study, and, to this end, the more independent of all text-books the examination is the better. But passing by this and other objections to the proposed plan, we wish to allude to the chief reason urged in its favor, namely, that it would prevent the frequent changing of text-books and ultimately secure uniformity. We do not see how either of these results would be secured, or even promoted, by the action suggested. On the contrary, experience teaches that the more examiners and other school officers who have not the legal authority *to adopt* text-books for the schools, meddle with this business the greater is the text-book confusion. The same is true when teachers' institutes and associations recommend particular books. The usual result of such action is to crowd new series into schools already burdened with a multiplicity of books. What is most needed is the *exclusion* of all but one series of books in each branch of study, and this requires legal authority. Besides we have observed that when institutes or associations, or other irresponsible parties, enter on this book business, they are adroitly manipulated by persons interested in particular books, and the conclusions reached are not worthy of very great consideration. We commend the institutes in Ohio for their wisdom in keeping free from such folly.

But of all the plans which have been suggested to secure a uniformity of text-books in our schools, the most ridiculous is that proposed by the "Daily Public School"—a Philadelphia production alike remarkable for its mischief and stupidity. The author seriously urges that the State should turn publisher, and monopolize the business by publishing a series of books in each branch of study, and by law excluding all other books from the schools! This would, beyond question, secure uniformity; but we think that all competent progressive teachers would soon begin to pray for a multiplicity of books as by far the less of the two evils. A set of school books, written under a State contract, would be a curiosity. Old fogyism would have good reason to believe that it had a new lease of life!

We confess that we have never been impressed with the importance of a uniformity of books throughout a State. We do not see how the schools in Cuyahoga and Hamilton counties, for example, would be benefited by the use of the same series of books. Such an arrangement might be of slight pecuniary advantage to families moving from one county to another, but we see no other gain. The claim that the adoption of school-books by the State will supply the schools with better books than those selected by the local school authorities, will hardly bear examination. The truth is, some of the poorest text-books published in this country are found in "State Series." The supplying of the schools of an entire State with text-books is a contract which money rather than merit is likely to win.

What is needed, be it remembered, is a uniformity of books in each school, and this is best secured by the action of the local school authorities. Our suggestion is, that boards of education be required by law to secure a uniformity of books in the schools under their control by adopting a series in each branch and excluding all other books. To prevent too frequent changes books when once adopted should be required to be used say from three to five years. This will secure necessary uniformity and permanency, and, by leaving the market open to competition, will also secure the greatest possible improvement in school books. Competition is the life of progress, and progress is needed in school-books as well as in plows and stoves.

SEPARATE SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

Mr. Editor: In the December number of your excellent periodical, one of your contributors, in referring to the late law authorizing any sub-district or any two or more contiguous sub-districts containing two hundred and seventy-five inhabitants, or upwards, to organize as a separate district, claims that this provision will prove highly injurious to our township schools. With all due deference to our friend's opinion, we beg leave to differ. His assertion that the more populous and wealthy districts not unfrequently derive their wealth from the smaller and weaker, is, we think, without evidence. Boards of education have endeavored to divide townships into sub-districts so as best to accommodate the children in their attendance at school. If it thus happens that one sub-district has twice or even thrice the number of inhabitants of some others, we do not see how it derived its wealth from them.

It is stated, further, that the smaller and weaker sub-districts, cut off from the assistance of the wealthier, are left to struggle on with limited school funds, and are compelled to pay low wages to teachers, and thus can only secure the incompetent and inefficient. Suppose two sub-districts in a township, having the requisite population to form separate school districts, are now paying one hundred dollars each annually, by taxation, to support the schools in the smaller and weaker sub-districts. If this aid should be withdrawn by their organizing as separate districts, a very small increase of taxation on the remainder would, in an ordinary township, replace the sum—so small, in fact, that the tax-payer would scarcely feel it, probably not one-tenth of a mill on the dollar.

Again, we are told that the separate districts can levy a higher rate of tax. Can not the township do the same? The former can levy no higher rate of tax than the latter.

The whole scope of the school law of 1853 and the amendments since, bearing on the subject, have been to encourage graded schools. For this purpose, incorporated villages which, with the territory annexed, contain three hundred inhabitants, have been privileged to form separate districts. As the more populous districts generally need two teachers, this want is met in the provisions of the late law, by which, by separation, they can form graded schools. What difference can it make in the wants and welfare of such districts whether they include an incorporated village or not? The fact is, that they nearly all include a village; but what has the incorporation of that village to do with the prosperity of its school?

Now, we ask, is it just to hamper the action of a large and populous district needing a graded school, by the jealousy and selfishness of other districts which look with distrust and dislike on its demands for funds for the payment of teachers and other purposes? We can readily refer to one sub-district which constantly needed two teachers (one very efficient), and which for eleven years was limited by the board of education to about one-fourth more funds for the payment of teachers than was allowed to the weakest sub-district which enumerated about one-third of its number of scholars; and for these eleven years the demand from that sub-district for more funds was steadily voted down. All that saved its school was the fact that, almost every year, new teachers, educated at home, offered their services, on trial, for one-half the wages necessary to secure a teacher from abroad. By boarding at their homes, they often taught for about what their board would have cost them in other districts. Township boards of education, being composed mainly of members from the weaker districts, too often legislate against the interests of the more populous districts. If they can have such schools as they desire with the tax they levy on themselves and with the amount they draw from wealthy and populous districts, they do not care whether the latter are equally well provided for or not. Often the more populous sub-districts require two teachers, the principal of which should be a teacher of more than ordinary ability, and to secure such a teacher higher wages must generally be paid. The other sub-districts look on with envy, and their representatives in the township board are unwilling to grant funds for extra wages to such principals, professing that the common wages paid to teachers is all for which provision should be made. This the writer knows to have been the case for several years, in regard to one wealthy and populous sub-district, from whose taxable property nearly $150 were drawn annually for the aid of the weaker sub-districts. We are heartily in favor of a forward movement; but this is rather more of what the "Township System" has been, than is in accordance with the views and wishes of the friends of education in many localities in Old Warren. E. J. Godfrey.

[The injustice to the large sub-district, referred to by our correspondent, was not due to the township system, but to the want of it. Had the schools of the township been under the control of a township board, fully responsible for their progress, sub-district envy and selfishness would not have proved so potent. The root of the weakness of our school system is this sub-district spirit. We want graded schools organized in all sufficiently populous neighborhoods, but the way to secure this is not by going back to the sub-district system. Still we do not object to the organization of separate districts, as provided by the law of 1853, and if our present mixed system is to be continued, an extension of the privilege to some other districts may be desirable.—Ed. Monthly.]

COUNTY SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

It will be seen by the notice of the Board of School Examiners, published in our advertising columns, that they conduct the examinations in writing, and grant no certificate unless the candidate prove himself "qualified to teach all the branches of study named in the law, namely, Orthography, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, English Grammar, and possesses an adequate knowledge of the theory and practice of teaching." This seems to us a very low grade of qualification for the teacher; yet the number of rejections reported below, and the short time for which most of the certificates are granted, show that the majority of those who apply for examination have not even this meagre preparation for their work. What must be the character of the training our children get from such instructors! Yet we are assured if the Board were to grant certificates to none but those *well* qualified to teach, many districts would have no teachers at all. There are about one hundred and sixty public schools in the county; and a large number of these pay so little as to command only the lowest and cheapest class of qualification. This state of things brings many to engage in teaching who are obviously but partially fitted for its duties; and encourages many to apply for certificates who have scarcely a single element of fitness for the work of teaching.

The remedy for this is mainly in the hands of the directors—a more liberal provision for their schools. It is impossible to get teachers of large qualifications for the wages of a farm hand. Yet such teachers are the cheapest on the whole. A teacher *worth* fifty dollars, or seventy-five dollars, a month, is *cheaper* than one worth only twenty. We spend about $35,000 a year in this county on our public schools; and it would be the *best economy* to double this amount at once. We shall never reap the full and proper return from our expenditures until we make it large enough to induce men and women of good ability and good education to engage in teaching as a life profession.

We understand that the object of the law in prescribing that certificates shall be issued for times varying with the qualifications of the candidates, is to give school directors the judgment of a competent Board of Examiners as to the comparative fitness of teachers; and it will be well when directors have a choice among applicants of different qualifications, that they look carefully at this index, and employ the ones with the best certificates, even if they have to pay a much higher price.—*Delaware Gazette.*

Editorial Department.

We have received a line from Mr. Northrop, of Connecticut, stating he was unexpectedly called from home, and could not send his promised article in time for this issue. We hope to publish it next month. Prof. Phelps begins a series of articles in this number, which will be read with interest and profit.

SCHOOL JOURNALS.

In noticing the recent suspension of the *New York Teacher* or, more properly, its mergence in another periodical, the *Pennsylvania School Journal* remarks:

> "At first view, this looks badly for the teachers and the cause of education in our neighboring State; but we rather suspect the cause is to be found, less in a failure of the educational energy and interest of New York, than in the wrong basis upon which the *Teacher*—as well as several other State periodicals—was established and conducted. It will probably be found that when a State periodical is started by and as the organ, and is dependent upon the means and support of a State Association, it can not long sustain itself; and that, even if afterwards conditionally committed to individual ownership, it will utimately fail. Like every other business enterprise, a School Journal, to be useful and permanent, must have a responsible owner and manager, or it will die from lack of support."

We believe that Dr. Burrowes has made a correct diagnosis of the difficulty which proved mortal in the case of our New York contemporary. The symptoms of an "organic" ailment have been noticeable in the *Teacher* for several years past.

We have an illustration of the same difficulty in the history of the *Ohio Journal of Education*, the predecessor of the MONTHLY. That journal was started by the Ohio Teachers' Association, and for eight years was published under its control and direction. It appointed the editor, made contracts for publication, etc. The close of the eighth volume found the Association in debt and the *Journal* ready to die. The Executive Committee were authorized to make such disposition of the periodical as they thought best. It was transferred to Messrs. Hurtt & Smyth to be conducted as a private enterprise. They agreed to publish the official notices and minutes of the meetings of the Association, but the Association reserved no control whatever of its pages. The proprietors were wholly free to advocate such views and measures as they might deem right and expedient. In brief, the transfer was complete and final.

The new journal, which was called the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, was successful, financially and otherwise, the first year, and, notwithstanding the adverse influences of the war, its prosperity has since steadily increased. It has just closed its eighth year financially "sound." We may add that during these eight years it has earnestly sought to promote the interests of the Association and to contribute to its success. This it has done, not because it was under obligations so to do, but because the mission, measures, and policy of the Association were worthy of such approbation and indorsement. It has been and is, in this sense and to this extent, its "organ."

We have given these facts because they corroborate the views expressed by the veteran editor of the *Pennsylvania School Journal.* No State Association is competent to conduct, for any considerable time, a school journal. It can encourage and sustain private talent and enterprise, and this, as all experience shows, is its wisest course.

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THE PROMOTION OF PUPILS IN GRADED SCHOOLS.

The direction of a system of graded schools is attended by serious difficulties, arising from the very perfection of its organization, and the more thorough this direction and the less the freedom of the individual teacher, the greater are these difficulties. An error in promotion, classification, government, or instruction, touches not simply one class or school, but all the classes and schools in the system; and, what is more, such an error when once incorporated into the system, is exceedingly difficult to eradicate. It becomes a part of its mechanism. Those who undertake the management of graded schools, assume, therefore, a responsibility which calls for the exercise of the greatest care and vigilance. Whoever undertakes the education of a child is bound to give it the best education possible under the circumstances. To subject hundreds of pupils to wrong methods of instruction or discipline when more correct methods are feasible, is little less than criminal.

Of the difficulties inherent in the management of graded schools, there are three which are so rarely overcome that they may be called the *unsolved problems.* The first of these problems may thus be stated: "How can pupils be taught in classes in a graded system without too greatly sacrificing their individual powers and characteristics?" Pupils in graded schools are arranged in large classes, and the teacher finds it necessary to adapt his instructions and class work to the minimum, the medium, or the maximum capacity of each class. If the maximum capacity is taken, the great majority of the pupils are hurried over their studies, and receive a superficial and imperfect training. If the minimum capacity is made the guide, the brighter pupils are kept back and, as a consequence, sacrifice time and talents, and not unfrequently fall into indolent habits.

These difficulties suggest that the teacher should adapt his class work to the medium capacity of his pupils with such special departures from this course as may meet, to some extent, the wants of the extremes of the class. But here comes in the "per cent. system" with its demands. That a class as a whole may attain a high average per cent., it is necessary that the lowest members of it reach a good standard, and this requires the holding back of the bright and industrious until by iteration and reiteration the dull and indolent can pass the test. The fact that a class has averaged say ninety-five per cent. in a written examination, always suggests to us that there has been a great sacrifice of time on the part of the majority of the pupils. The amount of time and talent thus wasted in some of our graded schools is very great. The ground actually gone over in the first or the second five years of the course, is much less than could be gone over by at least one-third of the pupils were they not chained to their classmates. This is not always evident to the teacher since the brightest pupils soon learn to keep step with the dullest, scarcely showing their ability to advance more rapidly.

Now how is this practical difficulty—and it is a serious one—to be obviated? What is the solution of this important problem? We answer frankly that we do not know. We can only see part way through the difficulty, as a remark or two will show.

A partial remedy is found in a more *elastic* system of promotion and classification. Instead of advancing classes *en masse*, the more capable pupils should be allowed to overtake higher classes, and the course of study must be so arranged as to permit this. The greatest obstacle now in the way, is due to the practice of promoting or transferring pupils but once a year. This separates the different classes by too wide an interval. In order to reach the next higher class, the pupil is obliged to go over two years' ground in one year. Moreover the pupil that fails to be promoted with his class is forced to spend another year on the ground passed over the previous year. When pupils are promoted but once a year, and then on a high standard of qualification which only a part of each class can reach, this difficulty becomes very serious.

The truth is there are few classes of ordinary size which can be held together without loss during an entire year. Even when the teacher wisely adapts his class work to the majority of his pupils—to the medium capacity of his class—the best scholars are unduly held back. What is needed is an opportunity for these pupils to step forward into the next class or grade, and this opportunity must occur oftener than once a year. In the lower schools semi-annual promotions are almost essential and special transfers from class to class are needed oftener than this. Semi-annual promotions bring the classes nearer each other, facilitate special transfers, and permit the adoption of a maximum standard of qualification, at least once a year. This breaks the classes, permits the brighter pupils to go on, and, at the same time, does not prevent the proper advancement of the less capable.

We are aware that annual promotions have special advantages. They reduce the number of classes (only nominally, however, when classes are so large as to break into two divisions), and they save labor and trouble, especially if classes are promoted in a body and on a minimum standard. Unquestionably, a procrustean system that reduces pupils to the same capacity, sets them in classes, and moves them regularly forward, will require but little skill or trouble to direct it. But it may be questioned whether the advantages of such a system compensate its serious losses; whether it is right to sacrifice the highest good of the more capable pupils to secure a self-adjusting mechanism and a perfect organization.

We propose to consider the other two problems in a subsequent article.

INSTRUCTION IN THE CINCINNATI SCHOOLS.

We recently spent a few hours in the public schools of Cincinnati with the view of ascertaining what changes have recently been made in methods of instruction—more particularly in methods of primary instruction. The schools visited were the Ninth District and the Sixth District.

Our attention was first directed to grades F and E. In the first room we entered we found a class under drill in reading. The teacher had printed a few words on the blackboard, and the class was giving their names and spelling them *by sound.* We learned that this is now the prevailing method of introducing children to the art of reading. Words are selected at first which may be made familiar by means of an object lesson. The pupils are taught to call these words at sight, and then to spell them by sound and finally by letter Little sentences are formed from these words and read. The order seems to be as follows: 1. The object. 2. The word. 3. The spelling of the word by sound. 4. The spelling of the word by letter. 5. The making and reading of sentences.

We were specially pleased with the course of instruction in the primary classes in language, or composition. All the pupils, even in the lowest grade, are taught to write, and very early they are able to write words legibly on their slates, to copy their reading lessons, etc. In grade D the pupils are required to give orally, in their own language, the substance of each reading lesson, and in the next grade (C) sentence-making, both orally and on the slate, is made a daily exercise. Each object lesson is made a practical drill in the use of language, and from this source nearly all the sentences written by the pupils are drawn. In other words, a lesson in language is made the complement of each object lesson. The slate exercises of the pupils are carefully corrected by the teacher—a half hour being devoted to this work. In grades A and B the pupils are required to change poetry to prose, to write descriptions, stories, letters, business papers, etc. In one of the rooms in Mr. Morgan's building we found a composition syllabus on the blackboard. The object to be described was a *candle,* and the pupils were directed to state "What it is; for what used; how made, and of what materials," etc.; and finally to write a "short story." In short, language is now as much a part of the course of primary instruction in Cincinnati as reading or arithmetic, and the results attained are full of promise.

But the most noticeable change observed by us, is in the methods of teaching geography. This branch is now introduced as early as grade C. The first year's instruction is wholly oral, beginning with the points of the compass, the location of important buildings, parks, etc., in the city, and gradually embracing the natural features of the earth's surface, the names and forms of the continents, etc. The first map studied by the pupils is a map of the city drawn on the board by the teacher. This is followed by outline maps of the Grand Divisions to be drawn by the pupils who are required to designate on the same all important capes, rivers, mountains, cities, etc., named in the syllabus. From this point onward, map-drawing is made an essential part of the course. In grade B the pupils draw a map of each state and territory in the United States.

In grade A they are required to draw maps of the United States and South America, and of each political division in Europe, Asia, and Africa. All the objects named in the syllabus to be located, are designated on these maps and recited from them. In a word, map-drawing is now made the basis of map study, and both local and descriptive geography are taught in connection with maps drawn by the pupils.

We examined maps in several of the rooms, observing in each commendable progress. In one room we saw a class draw on the board an outline map of South America. It was drawn by the "constructive" method, and the proportions were quite accurate. We learned from Mr. Morgan that in drawing maps of the States this method is found too complicated. It is difficult for the pupils to remember the different constructive forms, and so they are taught to draw the boundaries by the eye. In drawing the continents, the method is excellent.

We noticed other "reforms," but we defer further reference to them until we have seen more of their practical working. Instruction in the schools of Cincinnati is getting out of the ruts, and we hope to make, from time to time, a note of the progress attained.

MISCELLANY.

WE are now printing an edition of 3,750 copies, and we hope to reach this number of subscribers before the first of June. This result may be reached at once if one third of our readers will send us each one new subscriber. We have now several hundred more subscribers than we have ever before had so early in the year. We most heartily thank all who are lending the good cause a helping hand.

NOMINEE FOR SCHOOL COMMISSIONER.—The Democratic State Convention which met in this city on the 8th of January, nominated S. J. Kirkwood, Superintendent of the schools of Tiffin, as its candidate for State School Commissioner. In this nomination the importance of the office and the necessity of its being administered by an experienced educator are alike fitly recognized. We first met Mr. Kirkwood in 1862, at which time he had charge of the Cambridge schools. He will excuse us for adding that we have since recommended him to two important positions both of which he has filled with success. We have long held that politics should be ignored in selecting men to fill educational offices, and we take pleasure in commending this principle in thus alluding to our worthy friend's nomination.

We wish to say in this connection, in response to inquiries, that we shall not come before the Union Convention as a candidate for this office. We desire neither the nomination nor the office. It may be proper to add that we shall leave the nomination entirely to the Convention; that we shall neither oppose nor support any one who may be a candidate.

GOVERNOR COX'S MESSAGE.—In his late message to the General Assembly, Governor Cox declares it to be his opinion that "the stability of our Government and the preservation of the liberties of the people depend more upon the efficiency of our common school system, and the resulting intelligence of the rising generation, than upon all things else. Other interests may be important, but this is vital." This utterance is worthy of its high source. As a means of increasing the efficiency of the school system two changes are recommended: "1st. The establishment of county superintendencies; and 2d. The distribution of the public money in proportion to the number of pupils in actual attendance at the schools."

Without stopping to question the propriety of the latter change recommended, we take pleasure in saying that Ohio has never had an Executive who was a truer or warmer friend of common schools than Governor Cox. He carries into private life the best wishes of the educators of the State.

HAMILTON CO. TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—This association met on the second Saturday of January in Kuhn's & Curran's Academy. About fifty teachers were present. Mr. Dill, of Carthage, presented the subject of geography; Mr. Oyler, of Storr's, the vexed question of school discipline; and Prof. Royce gave an exercise in elocution. Mr. Johnson, of Avondale, read a paper on writing, which our correspondent represents as able and instructive. He opposed the attempt to teach children to write the same hand, and claimed that nine-tenths of those who become good business writers, break loose from their school hand and establish a hand of their own. He held that the first requisite in writing is legibility; the second, rapidity of execution; and the third, beauty.

The association voted to keep a record of the names, qualifications, and references of teachers, and, in the same connection, to note all vacant schools in the county. A committee was appointed to devise a plan for holding competitive examinations, and the vice-presidents were requested to canvass their respective townships or districts for subscribers to the MONTHLY. The association is doing a good work in the county, and we rejoice in its success. The meetings are held on the second Saturday of each month.

MIAMI COUNTY.—The teachers' association held a two days' institute at Troy, Dec. 26 and 27, 1867. About sixty teachers were present. The opening address was delivered by the President, Rev. W. Jay. Subject: "Our Duties as Teachers." This was followed by the reading of a very interesting essay on elocution, with blackboard illustrations, by C. W. Ridge. The sessions were mainly devoted to the free, conversational discussion of professional topics. Of the topics thus considered, "The Prevailing Faults of Teachers," "The Comparative Success of Male and Female Teachers," and "The best Manner of Suppressing Whispering," elicited most interest. Interesting essays were read by O. D. Peaslee on "The Right Side Out" and by James T. Hensley on "The Power of Example", and W. T. Hawthorn favored his younger colleagues with many instructive suggestions based on his own experience. The executive committee was instructed to make arrangements for a summer session of four weeks to be held at Piqua, and the institute closed with a very pleasant reunion.

CLARK COUNTY.—The teachers' association met at Springfield the second Saturday of January, some fifty teachers being present. The topics of reading and school discipline were discussed, and Rev. A. H. Ross delivered an interesting address on "School Visitation," which by request of the association is published in the *Republic*. We have selected a portion of it for publication in our next issue. The members of the General Assembly, representing the county and district, were requested, by a unanimous vote, to use their influence in favor of the passage of the county superintendency bill, after which the association adjourned to meet at South Charleston the second Saturday of March.

Mercer County.—The teachers' institute held at Celina Christmas week was attended by about sixty teachers. The day exercises consisted of recitations conducted by the leading teachers and friends of education in the county, and in the evenings lectures were delivered by Judge McKenzie, of Lima, and J. W. Steele, A. J. Hodder, and S. F. DeFord, of Celina. A new feature was the establishing of an institute periodical to be read at the annual sessions.

Montgomery County.—We learn from the Dayton *Journal* that there are but four frame school-houses in Montgomery county—the rest being all brick. The number of pupils enrolled in the city schools in 1867, was 4,031, and the number of teachers employed 70. The whole amount of money expended by the city of Dayton for school purposes, was $59,599.14. The *Journal* adds : "The school statistics for the county are not complete. The directors have neglected their duties in a number of instances, failing to report important items. The common school system, however, is working wonders throughout the county. In a number of the districts and sub-districts, graded schools have been established, and the educational standard has been greatly elevated. Everywhere improvement is reported over other years."

Mansfield.—The public schools are under the direction of Mr. H. M. Parker, assisted by an excellent corps of teachers, and are in good condition. Promotions from one grade to another are made at the close of the year, but when a pupil is found who is considered capable of maintaining a fair standing in the grade above him, he is encouraged to overtake it, and, when he does so, is promoted on passing an examination. The examinations are mainly written, and pupils are required, as a condition of promotion, to answer eighty per cent. of the questions proposed.

The buildings are located in different parts of the town, and there is no bell to notify the pupils of the time for the opening of school. Notwithstanding these drawbacks the per cent. of punctuality reached the first term of the present school year, was 99, and the average per cent. of attendance, 93. In several of the schools the absence and tardiness occurring in each class are marked in what may be called a blackboard record. This excites a wholesome rivalry between the several classes. But the main reliance of the teachers to secure regularity and punctuality of attendance, is continued and earnest effort—hard work. We have given these facts hoping that they may be of interest to many of our readers. We are glad to add that a new school building is soon to be erected.

Lima.—In a recent notice of the schools of this city, we alluded to the fact that the erection of another school building, at an expense of $30,000, was under discussion. The question has been decided by a vote in favor of the tax, and the building will be begun early in the spring.——The institute held the last week of December, was not largely attended, but a good degree of interest was awakened, out of which it is hoped that much good may come.

Sidney.—The report of the fall term shows that the public schools are making good progress. Compared with preceding years, there is a marked increase in attendance and a corresponding decrease in cases of tardiness, truancy, and punishment. The schools are in charge of Mr. N. L. Hanson, formerly of Troy, O.

Miamisburg.—The graded school system has recently been adopted in this village, and the schools thoroughly classified and organized. There was, at first, considerable opposition to the measure, but this feeling is gradually subsiding. A new school house is needed, and when this is built the permanent prosperity and growth of the place will be secured. The schools are in charge of Mr. L. O. Foose, who is sustained by an active and earnest board of education.

CINCINNATI.—The committee on the new Training School have not yet succeeded in finding a principal. The position was offered to Miss Cooper, of Oswego, at a salary of $2,000, but she has declined to accept it.

KENTON.—The schools in this town are under the supervision of Mr. James B. Finch, and are well attended. The enrollment the present term is about 600, and matters are moving along smoothly.

OHIO WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.—The catalogue for the year 1867–8 contains the names of 497 students—in classical course, 186; scientific course, 68; and preparatory department, 106. In looking over the courses of study, we find that they are composed of required and *elective* studies—each student taking one of the latter in addition to the former. After the Freshman year Greek and Latin alternate as required and elective studies—only one being a required study the same term. In the second year of the scientific course, each student must take French, German, or Latin, and the two former lauguages are made elective the third year. Latin is made elective the first year. We confess that we have not a very high opinion of the so-called "scientific" courses in our colleges, and we rejoice to see this movement in the direction of requiring the study of one language besides the English. The truth is students that spend a portion of their time in the study of language make better *scientific* scholars than those who ignore language altogether. We would like to see Latin made an essential element of the scientific course in all our Colleges, French or German taking its place the third or fourth year. A thorough *scientific* education requires that at least one-third of the student's time be devoted to language.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY.—The trustees of this institution have resolved to establish a professorship of English Language and Literature, and to revise the course of study. The improvement of the buildings is to be resumed in the spring.

GEAUGA SEMINARY.—The first number of the *Union Educational Quarterly*, a paper published at Chester, Geauga county, O., contains a historical sketch of this institution. It was opened in 1842, and is now in a prosperous condition.

COLLEGE EXCHANGE.—Professors Clark and Orton of Antioch College are delivering a weekly course of lectures—the former on astronomy and the latter on geology—to the students of Wilberforce University, and, in return, Prof. Suliot, of Wilberforce, lectures at Antioch, once a week, on rhetoric and composition, and criticises the essays of the more advanced students.

A SEVERE LOSS.—We regret to learn that the house of Maj. S. M. Barber, the excellent superintendent of the Ashland schools, was burned on the 20th of January. A few articles were saved from the lower story, but every thing in the upper part of the house, including clothing and bedding, was consumed. There was an insurance of $1,400 on the house and furniture, but the loss is still severe. A teacher's home usually represents many years of faithful, self-sacrificing labor.

WELL DONE.—The month of January brought us words of encouragement from many friends. Mr. E. Miller, Findlay, sent us 30 subscribers; James B. Finch, Kenton, 24; W. T. Hawthorn, Troy, 16; John Bolton, Portsmouth, 17; Miss C. A. Stewart, Newark, 16; P. E. Moorehouse, Washington, C. H., 13; W. B. Wheeler, 11th Dis., Cincinnati, 20; N. J. Thompson, 13th Dis., Cin., 14; W. H. Parham, East Col. Dis., Cin., 10; N. K. Royse, 6th Dis., Cin., 9; Alex. Forbes, Kentucky St. School, Cleveland, 16; and I. P. Hole, Akron, 9. Many others sent smaller clubs.

College Endowments.—In the past collegiate year thirty-one colleges in the United States received $3,041.000. The largest amount, $760,000, was received by Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Professor Charles Mathews, of New York, is spending a few weeks in the west, and desires to deliver his lectures on Milton's Paradise Lost, in places where he may be favored with an opportunity. He has an introductory lecture, complete in itself, on the Life and Times of Milton which he will present where only a single lecture is desired. His lectures are spoken of in high terms. He may be addressed in care of Jno. W. Andrews, Esq., Columbus, Ohio.

I. M. Clemens, of Granville, O., has been elected superintendent of the schools of Newburgh, in place of Mr. Adams resigned. He has made a good beginning by sending us the names of seven subscribers. We will insure his success.

Prof. Robert Kidd has been giving instruction in elocution in several of the institutes of Pennsylvania.

Arithmetical Problem.—A subscriber in Missouri asks us to submit this old problem to our readers, viz: "If 2 is the ½ of 3, what is the ¼ of 20?"

Outline Maps.—We have two sets of Guyot's Wall Maps, large and small series, which we will sell at a low price; also a set of Mitchell's New Outline Maps. They are all new, and in good order.

OTHER STATES AND COUNTRIES.

School Visitation.—A few months since the City Council and School Board of Baltimore appointed a joint committee of twenty-three persons to visit the cities of Philadelphia, New York, Brooklyn, and Boston to obtain information respecting their public schools and water works. Correspondence was opened with the cities named, and the commission made its grand tour of school inspection. We have the result before us in a report of ninety-six pages, written, we suppose, by Superintendent M'Jilton. The reading of this report recalls a paragraph of Rev. James Fraser's late report to the School Inquiry Commissioners of England, wherein he thus describes the farce of a school visitation which he witnessed in this country:

> "I happened to be in the High School of Philadelphia when a deputation of perhaps 25 citizens of St. Louis—who (as is common in America) were on a sort of cruise among the eastern cities to observe their various municipal and social institutions—entered for the purpose of 'seeing the school'. Their visit was expected, and an address of welcome and two recitations had been prepared in their honour. To these they listened and by the mouth of their number made brief reply; and after having stayed perhaps 20 minutes, took their departure, 'charmed', they said, 'with what they had seen', but, beyond having seen the intelligent faces of about 500 boys, and observed the perfect order that was maintained, knowing, I should suppose, nothing more of the actual working of the school than when they came."

Wisconsin.—This State leads all the States in the Union in the comparative number of its normal schools, six having been projected—one in each congressional district. The normal fund amounts in money and lands to $1,300,000, being, probably, the largest normal fund possessed by any one State or Government. $600,000 of this fund is now available. The normal schools are located at Whitewater, Platteville, Oshkosh, Stoughton, and Sheboygan. One school is not yet located. The school at Platteville is in operation, and is in charge of Prof. C. H. Allen, an eminent and accomplished teacher. Another will open in a few weeks under Prof. Oliver Arey, formerly in charge of the New York State Normal School at Albany. Col. J. G. McMynn's second term as State Superintendent expired on the first of January. He is succeeded by Mr. A. J. Craig who is assisted by Rev. J. B. Pradt, formerly, and for many years, editor of the *Journal of Education*.——The State Association met at Madison, Dec. 26 and 27. The session was one of great interest. Repórts were submitted by committees on "Compulsory Attendance," "Teachers' Institutes," "Normal Schools," "Education of Idiots," and "School Supervision." The last report was made by Col. McMynn who ably advocated the adoption of the township system of school organization. The report was unanimously adopted.——The *School Monthly*, published by the Milwaukee Teachers' Association, has reached its fifth number and well deserves to reach its fiftieth.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The December number of the *Teacher* contains the valedictory of Prof. Atkinson, the retiring editor. He frankly states that his retirement is due to a disagreement between him and the board of directors respecting the proper conduct of an educational journal. The difficulty seems to be due to the fact that Prof. Atkinson's views on certain educational, theological, and political questions are not in harmony with those held by a majority of New England teachers, and, exercising the freedom of discussion, he expressed these views pretty freely in the *Teacher*. He puts the case thus: "They do not wish the sort of journal we wish to edit; we do not wish to edit the sort of journal they wish to have." His successor as editor is Mr. D. B. Hagar, principal of the Salem Normal School, and one of the ablest and most successful educators in the State. He formerly edited the *Teacher*.——Supt. Philbrick will please accept our thanks for a copy of his last semi-annual report and several other valuable documents.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The fourth annual report of the State School Superintendent, Hon. W. R. White, is on our table. It gives a very encouraging account of the progress of the new school system, and is filled with information and suggestions of great value to school officers and teachers. The want most urgently presented is that of better qualified teachers. We learn that the two State Normal Schools at Guyandotte and West Liberty are provided with excellent buildings, the latter needing repairs, and that their prospects are flattering. Think of two normal schools in West Virginia and none in Ohio! A well-written and suggestive report of the schools of Wheeling, which we shall notice hereafter, is included; also the reports of several of the county superintendents.——*The Rural West Virginian* is the title of a neat monthly magazine of sixteen pages, published at New Creek, and devoted to education and agriculture. We have not seen the *Templar and Teacher* for several months, and fear that it has suspended. It was the organ of the State Teachers' Association.

MISSOURI.—Mr. J. Markham, Ironton, Mo., writes that educational interests there are making encouraging progress. The union school system was adopted last year, and the school was opened last fall. A new school building is approaching completion. There is in the community a strong prejudice against public schools, which time only can eradicate. The first teachers' institute conducted in the county, was held in May last, and a second session was held on the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th days of January, at which the Assistant State School Superintendent was present. The published proceedings show that much valuable instruction was imparted, and that a good beginning has been made.

A HIGH COMPLIMENT.—Rev. James Fraser, of England, in his recent report on American schools, says: "Taking it for all in all, and as accomplishing the end at which it professes to aim, the English High School at Boston, struck me as the model school of the United States. I wish we had a hundred such in England."

BOOK NOTICES.

A LATIN READER. By W. B. SILBER, A.M., College of the City of New York. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1867.

If I did not attach so much importance to the building up of Latin sentences as soon as practicable by translations from English into Latin, I would bestow an unqualified meed of praise on this little volume for beauty of execution, accuracy of details, judicious selection of the essentials of accidence, its remarkable condensation of syntactical laws, and the excellent recapitulation of all that matter, illustrated by a large dose of illustrative examples, not to be merely glanced over, but to constitute an actual lesson which is to be duly construed and translated. This is followed by a collection of Æsop's fables, very short, expressed in simple and classical language, accompanied by a *sparing* choice of notes, and a vocabulary. The whole constitutes a self-contained volume of only 226 pages, complete in all its parts. I should hardly desire any thing better for my own use, if, instead of the meagre apology for Latin composition, grudgingly, as it were, thrust back at the fag-end of the book, the author had given us, after each fable, a set of English sentences, the elements of which being found in that fable, could easily be combined together and turned into Latin by the learner. I once was compelled to use Andrews & Stoddard's Reader in that way. To be sure, I had to make out the sentences myself and dictate them to the class, or write them down on a spare blackboard, which cost time and labor; but the result was very satisfactory, as many of my then pupils, now very successful teachers, will recollect. T. E. S.

ELEMENTS OF PRONUNCIATION: Containing many important Orthoepic Discoveries. By CALEB BATES JOSSELYN. Boston: Walker, Fuller & Co. 1866.

This interesting treatise is a pamphlet of sixty-four pages. Mr. Josselyn defines a consonant thus: "A consonant is a vocal sound produced by an appulsive joining of an active with a passive part of the vocal organism." He defines a vowel as a "vocal sound produced by an *approximation*, more or less distant, of the same appulsive juncture." He then discusses the elementary sounds in detail, and presents many new ideas. Some consider *ch* as the representative of an elementary sound, while others consider it as the representative of two elementary sounds, namely, those representated by *t* and *sh*. Mr. Josselyn resolves *sh* into *sy*, thus resolving *ch* into *tsy*.

The critical readers of the MONTHLY will be interested in his tabular view of the elementary sounds.

TABULAR VIEW OF THE CONSONANTS.

p, (laryng. *b*), aculabial, mute,
t, (laryng. *d*), aculingual, mute,
k, (laryng. *g*), radilingual, mute,
ch, (laryng. *j*), = tsy, aculongilingual, mute.

f, (laryng. *v*), cunealabial, non-liquid ductile,
th, (laryng, *dh*), cunealingual, non-liquid ductile,
s, (laryng. *z*), sibillingual, non-liquid ductile,
sh, (laryng. *zh*), = *sy*, sibillongilingual, non-liquid ductile.

m, nasilabial, liquid ductile,
n, nasilingual, liquid ductile,
ng, nasiradilingual, liquid ductile,
l, fluilingual, liquid ductile,
r, sublingual, liquid ductile.
w, brevilingual, liquid ductile, semivowel,
y, longilingual, liquid ductile, semivowel.

h, aspirate, mute (?)

TABULAR VIEW OF THE VOWELS.

a (fare, fat), open, *e* (met), less open, *ee* (me, pin), occluse.	long, lingual simples.
a (far, tun), open, *u* (urn, current), less open, *aw*, (fall, not), less open, *oh* (broke), less open, *oo* (move, full), occluse.	brevilingual simples.
a (fate), = *e* (met) and *ee*, *o* (note), = *o* (broke) and *oo*.	natordial diphthongs.
i (pine), = *u* (tun) and *i* (pin), *oi* (toil), = *aw* and *i* (pin), *u* (tune), = *i* (pin) and *u* (full).	heterogeneous diphthongs.

ou (love), = *o* (not), *oh*, and *oo*—natordiaal triphthong.

Mr. Josselyn discusses at length his reasons for these classifications. It will be observed that he does not recognize the so-called "intermediate sound of *a*," as given by Worcester and the last edition of Webster's Dictionary. He says: "The simple truth is, that these words [*pass, fast, mast, last, dance, grant*] are necessarily pronounced by the disciples of Worcester either with the full sound of *a* in *far*, or with short *a*, in all cases, and the notation which designates the 'intermediate sound is superfluous and illusive, a stumbling-block to the student, and a monument to the ignorance of its author." This assertion, as well as many others in the work, deserves a close examination, but space forbids such an examination at present. All persons interested in a critical discussion of the elements of speech should not fail to procure Mr. Josselyn's little treatise. He may be addressed at Malden. I suppose the one in Massachusetts, though his preface does not so state. W. D. H.

GUYOT'S PRIMARY WALL MAPS. For Schools. New York: Charles Scribner & Co.

We have received from Ingham & Bragg, Cleveland, O., a set of these maps, which includes a large map of the United States and smaller maps of the World and Hemispheres, and of the several Grand Divisions, all mounted on muslin and inclosed in a neat portfolio. Like the larger series they represent both the physical and the political features of the earth's surface, the former by different colors showing the plains, plateaus, and mountain systems, and the latter by distinct boundary lines. The water-surface is represented by a sky-blue color. We have feared that the prominence given to the configuration of the land-surface would in the smaller maps too much obscure the political and topographical features. This we find to be true in the case of Europe where the political divisions are small, and where there is a great variety of surface. The difficulty is, however, in part overcome by a separate map representing Central Europe on a larger scale. When a mountain chain or a river separates two countries, it is in all the maps obscured by the bolder boundary line. This is not only true of Guyot's maps, but of all maps in which the boundaries of countries are represented in this manner. We have queried whether it is possible to represent both the physical and political features of a country on the same map, and avoid the use of such boundary lines. They must be made wide and bold in order to be distinct, and this mars the appearance of the map. We suppose that these maps are called "primary" on account of their size and outline character. They are, however, as well adapted to sub-district schools as to primary graded schools. They have received high commendation from many competent judges.

Harper's Writing Books: Symmetrical Penmanship with Marginal Drawing Lessons, for Schools and Families. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These writing books are unique and attractive. They are ruled in colors, and in such a manner as to indicate the hight, slope, width, and spacing of the letters, making the act of writing mechanical and simple—a feature which we fear is being carried too far by copy-book makers. In the first two numbers, copies on tinted ground are introduced for tracing with pen or pencil. The hand-writing is plain and uniform, and only one style of small and capital letters is used in the first four books. On the margin of the pages on a tinted ground are given an admirable series of drawing lessons, with a view of teaching drawing in connection with writing, and each as an aid to the other. We believe that this is the true idea. Drawing and writing should be conjoined, at least in practice. The books are printed on excellent paper.

The above writing books are supplemented by a new slate which is accompanied with writing and drawing slips for slate exercises. These slips or cards are held securely in the slate frame, and present an excellent series of lessons. The invention will prove, we think, very useful.

The North American Review. Ticknor & Fields, Boston, Mass.

The January number of this unrivaled quarterly has the following contents:

Art. I. Boston, C. F. Adams, jr. II. Francesco Dall' Ongaro's Stornelli, W. D. Howells. III. Railroad Management. IV. The Character of Jonathan Swift, A. S. Hill. V. Fraser's Report on the Common-School System, S. Elliot. VI. Co-operation, E. L. Godkin. VII. Witchcraft, James Russell Lowell. VIII. Governor Andrew, Sidney S. Fisher. IX. Critical Notices.

PERIODICALS RECEIVED.

Littell's Living Age. A Weekly Magazine. Littell & Gay, Boston, Mass.——No. 1233 (Jan. 18) contains Mr. Lowe's Edinburgh address on classical and scientific education. See advertisement.

The Nation. A Weekly Paper. E. L. Godkin & Co., New York. See advertisement.

Lippincott's Magazine. A New Monthly of Literature, Science, and Education. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.——The January and February numbers promise success. See advertisement.

Atlantic Monthly. February. $4.00 a year. Ticknor & Fields, Boston.

Every Saturday. A Weekly Journal. $5.00 a year. Ticknor & Fields, Boston.

Harper's Monthly. February. $4.00 a year. Harper & Brothers, New York.

Harper's Weekly. Illustrated. $4.00 a year. Harper & Brothers, New York.

Ladies' Repository. January. $3.50 a year. Poe & Hitchcock, Cincinnati.

World at Home. A Monthly Magazine. January, No. 1. $3.00 a year. Evans & Co., Philadelphia.

Herald of Health. A Journal of Physical Culture. February. $2.00 a year. Miller, Wood & Co., New York.

The Journal of Speculative Philosophy. A Quarterly Magazine. No. 3. $2.00 a volume. Wm. T. Harris, St. Louis.

The Medical Record. A Semi-Monthly Journal. February. $4.00 a year. Wm. Wood & Co., New York.

United States Musical Review. A Monthly Magazine. February. $2.00 a year. J. L. Peters, New York.

Whitney's Musical Guest. A Monthly Magazine. February. $1.00 a year. W. W. Whitney, Toledo, O.

The Sunday School Teacher. A Monthly Magazine. February. $1.50 a year. Adams, Blackmer & Lyon, Chicago, Ill.

THE

OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY:

Organ of Ohio Teachers' Association.

MARCH, 1868.

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THE INSTITUTE—TEACHING ONE ANOTHER.

The Teachers' Institute was probably founded for the special purpose of mutual aid in the art of teaching. This is a good purpose; but may it not be turned to even a nobler and a better? We should certainly estimate it a higher one, if in such institutions the teacher not only learned the art of teaching others, but the philosophy, rather than art, of social culture. If we learn much in schools, we probably learn more in society; and vastly more yet should we learn, were social intercourse wholly among those who could increase our ideas, excite our imagination, or sublime our thoughts. Of course, I do not mean to apply this to the common talk or business of life, but to such meetings and intercourse of educated men as admit of free, intellectual commerce. The teachers' institutes ought to be of this character. Why not make them what Plato made the Athenian Academy—a place of resort to the young, the educated, and the aspiring?

In a former article, I have spoken of the value and need of oral teaching, in opposition to the methods of routine lessons—the present fashionable mode in the schools. The lesson or routine method has been brought to perfection in Prussia; and certainly it is very admirable when we look at it as an adaptation to business merely. But what follows? Every young man there moves in a groove. He is educated to be a soldier, a merchant, a lawyer, or a minister, and when he is that, he can be nothing else. That is not the American idea of capacity or education. The American mind must have versatility. American society requires adaptation to many things. America requires thought, philosophy,—a continual ascending towards something higher—

a reaching out to an imaginary ideal beheld in the vision of an intellectual and spiritual perfection. A Prussian education wont furnish food for this appetite. It realizes the practical, but little of the possible in the future. Hence, in this country, we want something more vivifying than lessons only. We want the intercourse of free and original thought not only in the schools, but among teachers; and that we can only have by oral instruction—oral intercourse. We can not have an original thought which has already been printed in a book; and we can not have an original inquiry in a mere lesson. We must go beyond this. We must have free questions and answers—a free jotting down of what the spirit brings back when it has been wandering up and down on the earth in search of some green and beautiful thing not found in its earthly house of clay.

Now when I commend this oral teaching to the teacher in the school, it is not without knowing that, in most cases, this is not possible. When the weary teacher, surrounded by classes, with hardly time to go through the course, comes to hear a class of dull boys in the Rule of Three, he certainly has little time for frequent flights through the world of thought, and yet occasionally, at intervals, he has a chance for some sudden and stimulating exercise of free thought. These are golden opportunities, and when he can, let him do what he can in bringing out the very mind itself. But let us suppose he can do little of this in school; can he not do something for himself and something for others in the institutes? Why should not the American Institute be equal to the Greek Academy? It is true there will be no Plato there, but there may be a greater than Plato in some things. Certainly the additions to knowledge and thought, to religion and politics, in two thousand years, are such as make even a very common man greater than Plato in most of the ideas which distinguish the modern world.

But let me here refer to the fact, that the ancients seem to have excelled us in this mode of instruction. Greece was not the only place which had its academies of philosophy. A most interesting article on the Talmud, in the *London Quarterly*, gives us a most valuable piece of information on the Jewish system of education. I had supposed (the idea drawn perhaps from the extreme exactness of the Levitical Law and the necessary education of every Jew in it) that Hebrew schools were conducted on the lesson method, and very precise in their instructions; but the following paragraph has given me a new view of the subject:

> "Eighty years before Christ, schools flourished throughout the length and breadth of the land;—education had been made compulsory. While there is not a single term for school to be found before the captivity, there were by that time about a dozen in common usage. Here are a few of the innumerable popular sayings of the period, betokening the paramount importance which public instruction had assumed in the life of the nation: '*Jerusalem was destroyed because the instruction of the young was neglected.*' '*The world is only saved by the breath of the school children.*'"

This is language which may well be used in our country. Jerusalem before the captivity was ignorant; and was it not because she was ignorant that the hearts of the people were turned away from God, and she incurred those prophetic denunciations which resulted in captivity and suffering?

But *how* were the schools taught? In what methods did the teachers of Hebrew scholastics train the minds of the young scholars? Hear again:

> "The 'high colleges' or 'kallahs' only met during some months of the year. Three weeks before the term, the Dean prepared the students for the lectures to be delivered by the Rector, and so arduous became the task, as the number of disciples increased, that in time no less than seven Deans had to be appointed. Yet the mode of teaching was not that of our modern universities. The professor did not deliver lectures which the disciples, like the student in 'Faust,' could comfortably take home in black and white. Here all was life, movement, debate: question was met by counter question, answers were given wrapped up in allegories or parables, the inquirer was led to deduce the questionable point for himself by analogy—the nearest approach to the Socratic method. The New Testament furnishes many specimens of this contemporary method of instruction."

Here we have a new idea of Jewish schools, and in it we see how it was that Paul became such an accomplished scholar and debater, and how the educated class of the Pharisees became in fact scholars, learned in the laws and customs of their day.

But the interesting point of this information is, that the colleges of the Jews were really philosophical institutes—debating societies engaged on the highest problems of education and religion. A large part of all their instruction was *oral*, using largely, also, the Oriental mode of speaking in figurative language. That language was adapted to the earlier ages of society, when the human mind was not yet capable of that entire abstraction which the description of historical events and philosophical ideas always implies. Language, as we now have it, is wholly abstract. In this respect, I think it better for teaching than the figurative style. Figures of speech are always cumbrous, and are incapable of expressing the operations of the mind. The Greek schools used the same oral-questioning method, but with the most refined language, dropping the figurative style altogether.

But in the accounts of the Greek Academy and the Hebrew "Kallah", we see how well the classic nations understood the theory of giving and evolving ideas. The Hebrews were at the head of the religious and the Greeks of the scientific development of the world. Yet they both agreed in the Socratic method of questioning, debating, and orally evolving ideas. "All was life, movement, and debate." It was, in fact, bringing mind in contact with mind, and, as the steel strikes fire from the flint, evolving the light and brilliancy of the excited intellect.

And now I would ask, Can we not make the Teacher's Institute into something like the Academy or the Kallah? It is true, we can not have Plato, nor Gamaliel, nor Paul, the most illustrious pupil of the ancient schools, but we can have the best minds of our times; for, be assured, all minds worth knowing will be glad to enter and take part in an assembly where all the highest problems of human nature are discussed in a free spirit. This is just what our country wants. It wants a free forum; and we have it not unless educational discussions afford it. We go to church, and one speaks our own sentiments. We go to a political meeting, and it is managed by one party and addressed by one side. We go to a concert, and we have music in which we have no part. We go to a fashionable party, and we hear ——— nothing! We go to school, and we learn a lesson; and when we don't learn, we hear one recited. Where is the communion of minds? Where is the evolution of ideas? Where is the sympathy of souls? We are deficient in something—what is it? We are too much of the earth, earthy. Can we not devise something which, for a brief hour, on life's dusty road, will lead us to green meadows and pleasant waters?

It seems to me that there is a possibility that teachers' institutes may become such a device. Perhaps it is only a possibility. But let us try it. The teachers began these institutes with a strong smell of the shop. Now that is to be avoided, except in purely business meetings, and there is plenty of time for them. In two or three meetings I attended, I observed that the meetings gathered strength just as the subject of discussion became general and the problems large. Now I would have teachers institutes meet at an early hour, and transact whatever pertained to them as teachers. Then I would have them resolved into a forum for the discussion of all the great problems of human life, the institute preserving its own officers and rules for the preservation of order. All problems enter into the proper culture of the human mind. Some have been thought of, perhaps well studied by one class of persons; another, by another. Let all educated people be invited, and let them come prepared, as in the formation of a library, each to lay his own book upon the table. Then all will gain something. All will be life, movement, debate. There is only one institution which corresponds to this plan, and that is forced into narrow limits. That is the British Association for the Advancement of Science. There is a similar one just established in this country. But they are neither so broad nor so useful or popular as will be a teachers' college for the discussion of great, social, and enduring problems of human life. We want something which will bring out the living thought and the immortal spirit. E. D. M.

Morrow, O.

THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS.

√ BY PROF. WM. F. PHELPS.

In a former article on this subject it was stated, (1) that previous to engaging his services, a teacher should carefully consider the question of his adaptation to the particular locality and school which he proposes to serve; (2) that this question should likewise be studied by the school officers; and (3) that pending the negotiations for a school, teachers should not fail to make known to the employing officers the views which are to control them in its organization and management, while the contract should bind the officers to the support of such measures as may be in accordance with these views.

IV. Our next proposition is, *that one or more of the trustees should accompany the teacher to the school house on the opening day, and give him a suitable introduction to the school.*

When a school fails to teach good manners and the common courtesies of life, it fails to realize one of its most vital objects. A civil ignoramus is to be preferred, ordinarily, before a learned boor. No man is properly educated who is not a *gentle*-man. There is great force, too, in the maxim that "manners make the man." That kind of education which neglects to cultivate the personal habits and manners of the child, is of very questionable utility. Our American schools, and especially our common schools, do not usually overburden themselves with this sort of teaching. The cultivation of those tastes, feelings, and practices, which belong to a refined social state, are, it must be confessed, by far too generally neglected. It is not uncommon, to speak frankly, for rowdyism to be rampant in these "colleges of the people." Respect for superiors and equals, reverence for authority and the true amenities and courtesies of life, are virtues too rarely found illustrated among the children of our country. We say, then, let the opening day of the school be made the occasion for at least one impressive example of propriety and good breeding.

But there are other reasons which justify this step. The teacher thus accompanied by the authorities of the district, carries into his work the full weight of that authority as well as of his own. He is thus placed in a position to command, in the outset, the respect of the children and their parents. It gives him a prestige which, unaided and alone, he can not enjoy. The occasion, too, may be embraced by the school officers to explain, briefly and pointedly, to the children the duties which they owe to the teacher, and which they are expected faithfully to perform. They may be made to understand that the teacher is to be sustained in all just measures for the welfare of the school and the progress of its pupils.

V. This should be followed by *a brief, familiar, and appropriate address by the teacher to the school.*

The aim of this address should be kindly to explain the mutual relations which exist between teacher and pupils, and to bespeak from the latter that cordial coöperation which is so indispensable to the success of the work about to be undertaken in their behalf. The teacher should thus strive to produce a pleasing *first impression* upon his pupils, and make them feel that he is to be to them a companion and friend, intent only upon making them better, wiser, and happier than he finds them.

VI. The next step should be *to engage in some appropriate general introductory exercises.*

These exercises may consist of singing some familiar pieces, or of such devotional services as may accord with the views of the teacher and the proprieties of the occasion. As we are ever dependent upon the care and protection of the Supreme Being, it is eminently proper that each day of school life should be begun with an acknowledgment of that dependence, and an invocation of the Divine favor upon the serious and solemn task of educating the human heart and soul. If these services are wisely adapted to the circumstances and condition of the school, they will become interesting and impressive, and will affect the hearts and consciences of the young, winning them to the ways of wisdom and the paths of peace. They should be such as the children can participate in and appreciate. They may consist of singing, the responsive reading of scripture texts, and the simultaneous repetition of the Lord's prayer, or they may be varied to suit particular circumstances.

Appropriate general exercises introduced at the beginning of the first day, are useful in dispelling embarrassment and in establishing that bond of sympathy between the teacher and pupils so essential to free and agreeable intercourse. It should be one of the first objects of the teacher's care to secure and maintain this sympathetic feeling, since it must constitute the key note of his success in the work before him. Rightly to enlist the emotional nature of children in their school duties, is to win the contest almost in advance.

VII. *As a preliminary to the permanent classification of the school, the teacher may, for the present, adopt as far as possible the classification of his predecessor, with the distinct reservation that he shall exercise the right to alter or modify it to suit his own views and circumstances.*

This plan is recommended in order to avoid the danger of arousing the prejudices of the pupils by radical changes of classification before the teacher has had time firmly to establish himself in their confidence. This is a matter about which children are extremely sensitive, and there is great necessity for caution in these first steps. Assuming the classification as already specified, the teacher may proceed to ascertain what studies have been pursued by the several classes and to what extent, preparatory to the assignment of lessons for the succeeding day. Under cover of these lessons, a careful and minute examination of the pupils may be carried on with a view to determine the real standing of each and to make such modifications of the classification as the result may seem to demand.

At this point, too, the names and ages of the pupils may be registered by classes, mainly for the purpose of assisting the teacher in learning the names and in recording the results of his daily observation of their standing as evidenced by the examinations *under cover of recitations.* During the recitations, let questions in review of subjects previously passed over, be freely asked as well as tests of mental power be made, in order that a true diagnosis of each case may be carefully determined with reference to the permanent classification. This plan may be pursued for several days and until the teacher has become familiar with the standing of every pupil and has secured a complete record of the results obtained. He is thus prepared to take another step in the direction of a more nearly perfect organization. This with other steps we shall next consider.

THE CLASS ROOM.

INTEREST—LESSON I.

Of late years I have succeeded so badly in assigning lessons for my pupils to learn and recite, that I have entirely abandoned the practice. I have no recitation, properly so called; the pupil comes to the class to be *taught* and not to show what he has learned. In my teaching I aim to make the pupil the discoverer and not the mere receiver of truth; to assist him to derive his knowledge of the subject under consideration from his observation or from his reasoning, and to ally his newly attained knowledge with what he has before learned. I continue to question him upon the same point till the answers show that the subject is understood; and these answers must be so complete and explicit as to be intelligible without the question. No other preparation is required on the part of the pupil than his bright, thoughtful attention. This I secure by being in earnest and being *myself.*

The following lesson on interest is given as an illustration of my plan. A few questions have answers appended in italic, thus showing the point aimed at. When the question requires a term for the idea just obtained, no answer can be given by a class totally ignorant of the subject, and, with such a class, the question had perhaps better be omitted:

William Cook has intrusted me with a sum of money which I am to return to him in one year. Should I pay him for the use of his money, or should he pay me for its safe keeping? Why?

What evidence should I give him of my intention to pay at the end of the time agreed on? Should my promise be oral or written? Why?

What name have we for a written promise to pay money? What is a note?

Who in this case would be the maker of the note? Who would hold the note, I or the lender? Why?

A note being a written promise to pay, my note must of course promise to pay William Cook the sum borrowed, one year after date. Must I promise to pay any thing besides this?

Yes. You must promise to pay something for the use of his money.

What shall we call this money paid for the use of money? What is interest? Who pays interest? Why? Who receives it?

When I settle with William Cook, will I pay him the same sum I borrowed or more? Why more? How much more?

Which will be the greater sum, the money borrowed or the interest? Which then will be the *principal* part of my indebtedness? What name then shall we give to the sum borrowed? What is the principal?

What did you say would be the *amount* of my indebtedness at the year's end? What shall we call the principal plus the interest? What is the amount? Principal, $100; interest, $15.60: what is the amount? Principal, $1,000; interest, $112.75: what is the amount? Principal, $\$a$; interest, $\$b$: what is the amount? What do I mean by a dollars? By b dollars?

Would you write a note in pencil? Why? Would you think it safe to express the principal in figures? Why?

Is it important to have the date of the note clearly expressed? Why? Would you take equal pains to designate the place, State, and county in which the note is made? Why?

A note should always contain the words "value received," can you tell why?

What is the most convenient method of reckoning interest upon money? *To take a certain per cent. of the principal?*

Can you tell why this is more convenient than to specify the *sum* to be paid as interest?

If I were to promise to pay five per cent. interest, how much would I pay for the use of $100? $1,000? $10? $1? $\$100a$? $\$a$?

For what *time* will five dollars pay for the use of $100 at five per cent. interest? What would be the interest of $100 for 2 years? 3 years? 2½ years? ½ year? ¾ year? What would be the interest for a years?

Now tell me what a note should contain? What should be written first? Where shall we place the date? Where do you put the date of a letter? What comes first in the body of the note? *The time.* What time? *The time for which the money is borrowed.* What comes next? *The promise.* What then? *The rate per cent. interest.*

Where should the name be subscribed? Is that the place to sign your name to a letter?

Write a note on your slates, promising to pay me $100 ninety days from date with seven per cent. interest per annum. Henry write yours on the board.

I find most of your work correctly done. As an exercise we will work thirty miscellaneous questions in percentage, which please bring to the class to-morrow on your slates.* Excused.

Marion, O. W. W.

WHERE DOES SUNDAY BEGIN?

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

If a traveller should leave Columbus, Ohio, at noon on Saturday and go westward keeping pace with the sun, he would arrive at Columbus at noon on Sunday. His noon would continue for twenty-four hours, and Saturday noon would change to Sunday noon without an intervening night. Where would the change occur?

If a man should start from Columbus at noon on Saturday and travel east one degree, he would hasten the first noon that would occur after his arrival, four minutes; but if he should travel west one degree, he would delay the first noon after his arrival, four minutes. Now if two men should start from Columbus and travel round the earth, one going east and the other west, and should meet each other at any point, whether half way round or not, it would be found that one would have set the hands of his watch forward four minutes for every degree that he had travelled east, and the other would have set the hands of his watch backward four minutes for every degree that he had travelled west. There being 360 degrees of travel, the sum of the minutes of change in the two watches would be exactly twenty-four hours. But the watches at the meeting-place would indicate the same hour of the day, and hence the travellers would agree as to the time of the day but they would differ just one day as to the day of the week, the eastward traveller being a day ahead. Every additional 360° travelled jointly by the travellers would make another day's difference in the week, until they should travel jointly seven times 360° when they would not only agree as to the time of day but as to the day of the week. They would, however, disagree seven days as to the day of the month. If they should travel jointly twenty-eight times 360° and meet on some day of February in a common year according to the count of the westward traveller, they would agree as to the time of day, the day of the week, and the day of the month, but not as to the name of the month, the eastward traveler calling it March. If they should travel ninety-one times 360° and meet on some day of April according to the westward traveller, they would agree except as to the name of the month, the eastward traveller calling it July. If they should travel jointly 245 times 360° and meet according to the westward traveller in May, they would agree as before, except that the eastward traveller would call it January of the following year.

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* Is not this the assigning of a lesson to be prepared and recited?—Ed. Monthly.

Such discrepancies might occur in common years in a dozen other ways. For instance, for ninety-one times 360° we might also have the months September and December. In leap years about sixteen such instances might be given not going beyond 336 times 360°. If they should travel 2191 times 360°, they would agree as to the time of day, the day of the week, the day of the month, and the name of the month, but they would differ six years as to the number of the year of the century, provided there should be one intercalary day between their dates.

To bring about such results, there need be no restriction as to the time of starting nor rate of travel. If the two supposed travellers should not live to carry out the plan, there would be the same results if the travel is finally completed by any of their immediate or remote descendants, provided they should retain the same mode of counting time.

Now what have been the facts as to the emigrations of persons belonging to nations that designate days by seven distinct names. Starting from Europe the emigrants to India, China, Australia, New Zealand, the Society Islands, etc., reached these countries and islands by eastward travel, and hence the time used by Europeans in all these places is in advance of that in Europe. All of both North and South America (except the late Russian America) was settled by westward travel from Europe, and hence the time is behind that of Europe. Still more, American missionaries travelled west in 1820 to Honolulu in Oahu, one of the Sandwich Islands, and thus made the time in the Sandwich Islands slower than that in California. The Society Islands lie between 151 and 152° west longitude from Greenwich, and the Sandwich Islands between 155 and 161°. Hence the difference in time between them is a little more than one day, or twenty-four hours—that is, there has been an overlapping of the waves of eastward and westward emigration. But this overlapping is still greater between the eastern part of Russian America in long. 130° west and the westernmost of the Sandwich Islands. Russian America having been settled by eastward travellers, the time is in advance of that in Europe and Asia. The time in the most eastern part of it is twenty-six hours in advance of that in the westernmost of the Sandwich Islands. It seems, then, that the first persons in the world that begin to count Sunday are the Russians in Russian America. If the proposed traveller from Columbus west with the sun, should be able to call for the day loud enough for all the persons for thousands of miles on his right and left to hear him, after leaving the United States the British fur-traders would answer "Saturday noon" until he arrived at long. 130°, when he would hear the Russian answer "Sunday noon," and this answer would continue from the north for the remaining portion of the trip, but when arriving at 150° a like answer would be heard from the Society Islands south of the Equator. When he arrived at 155° he would hear from the Sandwich Islands "Saturday noon," but at the same time from Russian America and the South Pacific Islands "Sunday noon." After passing the Sandwich Islands he would probably hear only "Sunday noon" for the rest of the journey. I should have stated that the traveller after reaching the longitude of the eastern part of Russian America, namely 130°, that there would be a double response until he arrived at 141°, because there is a portion of British America north of the eastern strip of Russian America. The response from that region would be "Saturday noon," while from the Russian country just south of it the response would be "Sunday noon."

As Russian America has been purchased by the United States, Congress will no doubt put back the time by legislation, and also abolish the Russian calendar which is Old Style and twelve days behind ours in the month.

A great deal has been said about the day-line, and some declare it to be at 180° of longitude. There *is* no day-line, as I have abundantly shown. Navigators generally adapt their time of week to that of the port at which they stop. A ship sailing west from San Francisco to Hong Kong would leave the Sandwich Islands with the time of these Islands, but on arriving at Hong Kong would be a day behind. The adaptation to the anticipated Hong Kong time could be made at any time on the route after leaving the Sandwich Islands or after arrival. Travellers are under no necessity of changing their name of the day of week at ports at which they stop only temporarily. If they travel westward and return home eastward, their count will be just right if they should preserve it throughout the whole trip. If they should complete the circuit of the earth and retain their count, they would find this count either one day ahead or behind that at home according as their travel has been eastward or westward.

From what has been said the reader will be able to explain how a navigator might have six Sundays in February in a leap year, the last two coming together or in succession, and how he might have only three Sundays in February by being compelled to omit the fourth by counting Monday after Saturday.

From what has been said it will readily be seen that Sunday lasts on the Earth at present 50 hours.

THE TRUE TEACHER.

A true teacher *loves his work.* Instead of plodding through his duties, day after day, he goes about them with spirit and energy. Each day, as it comes, brings new attraction and opens a new life to him. He is continually searching for information that may be of interest and value to his pupils. His love for his work enables him to prosecute it without growing weary or becoming disheartened. Each step presents something of interest beyond, and the day is never too long. His zeal infuses life and interest into his pupils, and they catch his manner, his spirit, and his enthusiasm.

The true teacher *feels an interest in his pupils.* He takes pleasure in pointing out to them the "better way" in all their plans and pursuits. He never helps them in preparing their lessons except when they absolutely need assistance, and then only by a few hints or questions which show the right direction. He shares their sports, and by this association finds out their weaknesses and faults, and, by gentle influence, aids them to overcome them and walk in the path that leads to a noble manhood or womanhood. He feels an interest not only in their studies and pursuits but also in them personally. What child will not do all he can for such a teacher?

The true teacher is *always firm.* Having once taken a position he only yields when he finds he is in the wrong, and even then he changes in such a manner as not to indicate fickleness. His rules are few and simple, and he requires them to be promptly and cheerfully obeyed. But with all his firmness he unites a kind and mild manner which causes his pupils to love him while they obey his requirements. Even when corrected for misdemeanors, they feel that he is right.

The true teacher is blessed *with a large share of common sense.* This guides him in times of trouble, and helps him to manage all things with tact and ability.

The true teacher tries *to understand what he teaches.* He prepares himself faithfully for his recitations, never attempting to teach a principle which he himself has not mastered. He is careful to keep posted in what is transpiring around him, including discoveries, current events, etc., with a view of using the knowledge thus acquired for the good of his school.

He also seizes every opportunity to add to *his professional knowledge and skill.* He searches for the best methods of instructing his classes; visits different schools to witness their working and methods; attends teachers' institutes; and strives to keep well up with the profession in progress. To this end he studies works on the theory and practice of teaching, and takes and reads educational periodicals. He also feels a fraternal affection for all his co-workers in the profession. He regards every earnest teacher his brother, and is ready to give him a hearty grasp of the hand.

These are some of the attributes or characteristics of a true teacher, and now let us see what are his *motives.*

The grand motive of the true teacher is *to do good.* He seeks to make the next generation better than the present, and, to this end, he teaches his pupils to be good, wise, and honorable. He strives to develop and improve their mimds, and to lead them in the paths of knowledge and virtue; to mould their characters and prepare them for a blissful future existence—and all with the hope that he may meet them in that better land beyond the grave.

He looks on his profession as second to no other, not excepting that of the minister.

Another motive is *his duty to God*. This duty calls him to serve his generation, his country, and mankind, and this he feels he can best do by teaching. He, therefore, engages in this service as a duty.

Unfortunately there are those engaged in teaching who are governed by other motives. Some are teaching solely to get their "bread and butter," and such are daily leaving the business to engage in something that pays better. Others make teaching a means of preparing for college or a stepping-stone to some calling which they like better. These teachers are in the profession temporarily, and may not be governed by the high motives I have named. But for the blunders they make, or the wrong they commit, they are held accountable.

To those about to engage in a calling so high and noble as teaching, let me say look well to your motives. See that they are pure and undefiled, that the harvest which you shall gather may be sheaves of immortality, and that they may be garnered in Heaven. S.

MORAL CULTURE.

EDITOR MONTHLY—*Dear Sir:* In the MONTHLY before us—January, 1868—is an article from our friend, Mr. Slocomb, on "School Government." The article, in the main, receives our cordial commendation; but we wish to dissent somewhat from the views of the writer in that part which relates to the opening of schools with prayer. With Mr. Slocomb I believe that "the Bible contains the best code of moral instruction known to man, and it should have a place in our schools." I feel that I am under obligation to God "to communicate that which is pure and just and good" whenever opportunity offers; but I feel bound to communicate "*according to instructions.*" And here we ground our dissent to prayer in public schools. Paul shunned not to declare "all the counsel of God" in relation to morals; and as he never taught the duty of public prayer before mixed assemblies, we conclude that it is no part of the counsel of God. We find no sanction of public prayer in the Bible.

If teachers desire to pray for their pupils, let them do so according to the instructions of Jesus: *When thou art alone, the door of the school room being closed, pray; and God who seeth in secret will reward thee openly.* This is my view of this point in moral culture.

My school is opened in the following manner, from sixty to seventy pupils being present:

1. The school will please pronounce the word *quietness* in concert; then listen for the ticking of my watch:

(q——u——i——e——t——n——e——s——s.)

2. I read a few verses of Scripture, selected with reference to the inculcation of at least one point of moral excellence.

3. The school recites in concert after me:

A. A good name is rather to be chosen than great riches.

B. Blessed are the pure in heart.

C. Children obey your parents; for this is well pleasing unto the Lord.

D. Depart from evil and do good.

E. Evil communications corrupt good manners.

F. Fear God and keep his commandments.

G. Good understanding giveth favor.

H. Honor thy father and thy mother.

I. In the way of righteousness is life.

J. Jesus said, If a man love me, he will keep my commandments.

K. Keep thy tongue from evil, and thy lips from speaking guile.

M. Mark the perfect man, and behold the upright; for the end of that man is peace.

P. Poverty and shame shall be to him that refuses instruction.

R. Remember thy creator in the days of thy youth.

S. Swear not at all.

T. Take fast hold of instruction.

4. We sing some favorite school song.

This alphabet may easily be illustrated, varied, and extended; and, by judicious management, many school affairs may be righted. For example, when coaxing for high per cents call for *A*. If a boy is known for vulgarity or gross habits, talk carefully about *B*. If girls are bad in manners, call up *E*, and inquire from the effect back to the cause. If a pupil fails in reciting because of laziness, call the *next* pupil to recite some Scripture beginning with the letter *P*. When a class is called, awaken the members by—"Take fast hold of instruction."

These thoughts I respectfully offer as bearing on a common problem; personalities I have not intended.

Carthage, Jan. 25, '68. McCammon Dill.

[Our friend believes that public prayer is not sanctioned by the Bible, and we believe that it is. Here is a difference of opinion which we shall not try to settle in these pages.—Ed. Monthly.]

SCIENTIFIC LECTURES FOR LADIES IN ENGLAND.

A lady in England writes to me that Miss Clough, a relative of the late Arthur Clough, the poet, is devoting considerable time and labor to getting up weekly lectures in various cities of the north of England, for girls who have left school, but who wish to continue the work of self-education. She has nominally the assistance of a committee of arrangements, but has hitherto done most of the work herself.

Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, and Sheffield have each formed, under her auspices, a Ladies' Educational Society. Lecturers are to be engaged to deliver, each his own course in the same week, in each of the four cities.

The first course was one of eight lectures on Astronomy by a Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. The class began with 120, and ended with nearly 200 ladies. The lecturer gave, each time, a series of nine or ten questions, any or all of which he wished the young ladies to answer in writing; he looked over and corrected the papers. About one-fourth of the Liverpool ladies wrote, and "wrote well," he said. The proportion was larger in other towns.

Miss Clough is, of course, much delighted with the success of the lectures; but she is not satisfied to stop there: she has started a Schoolmistress's Association. They will have a reading-room, to be open twice a week, where they can hold occasional meetings to discuss educational matters and enjoy a little friendly intercourse.

The course of Astronomy is to be followed by one of twelve lectures on English History from the Norman Conquest to the epoch of Magna Charta. The lecturer will describe the physical geography of England in mediæval times, the structure of Anglo-

Saxon society, the condition of the English nobility in the 12th century, etc.

How much of that plan could we hope successfully to engraft on our so very different social system? T. E. S.

P. S. Your types last month made me plead for college textbooks "short and *pretty*"—with nice pictures, I suppose, to please the innocent little collegians! I meant to write *pithy*.

I am continually hearing people give the sound of *a* in *fate* to the article *a* when not emphatic and to the *a* in such words as *a*round, *a*mong, *a*dopt, *a*tonement, algebr*a*, etc. Being an "outside barbarian" I dare not say much, but such pronunciation is very tormenting to me. I wish you would put on the judicial cap, as the judges do in England when about to doom to death some unfortunate criminal, and issue your edict against such abominations.

By the way, would you, in your next, publish a glossary, to enable us poor common mortals to understand Mr. Josselyn's extraordinary nomenclature—*nasiradilingual*, *natordial*, etc., etc. Is it Arabic? T. E. S.

THE THEORY AND ART OF TEACHING.

[These questions, originally prepared by President Edwards, of the Illinois Normal University, are taken from the recent report of the Kansas Normal School. Teachers and examiners will find them very suggestive:]

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

Give the etymology and meaning of the word organize. Give another common word from the same root. What is an organ? Illustrate.

In view of the etymology and meaning of the word organize, what is it to organize a school? Name some things that in this sense can not be organized.

Name the two ways of investigating such a subject as the organization of a school. What science must be understood in order to use the *theoretic* method here? Explain the process in the theoretic method.

What method did Bacon investigate or review in respect to the Natural Sciences? Explain the process in this method.

What method of investigation is best adapted to our purpose in discussing school matters? Is the other altogether bad? Why do we use the one that we do?

What object is a school intended to subserve? Give Plato's definition of education.

What is meant by making education symmetrical? Etymology and meaning of this word. Is this an important thing? Why?

When does the organization of a school begin? What may be done before the first morning of school? What can you say of visiting parents?

What principle must the teacher adopt in reference to what ought to have been done by others, but has not? Illustrate.

At what time should the teacher be in school on the first morning? Advantage of coming before school time?

Should the teacher mingle much with his pupils? Will it do for him to lose his dignity? Etymology of the word. Shall he take part in sports?

How may the teacher preserve his dignity? What can you say about being thoroughly prepared? Pretending to knowledge he has not?

What is the effect of firmness on the teacher's true dignity? Of avoiding all appearance of evil? Of ignorance? Of injustice?

State the effect on the teacher's dignity of possessing a thoroughly worthy character. Is not strategy and adroitness in managing worth more than this? Why?

How and when shall school be called to order on the first morning? What can you say of wakefulness on the part of the teacher? How shall he exhibit this quality? Shall he stand or sit while taking names? Is it of much consequence that he learn names readily?

What evils result from the exhibition of a suspicious manner on the part of the teacher? Is it meant that the teacher should not take cognizance of any evil of which the pupil may be guilty? Show clearly what is meant?

What should be the opening exercises of a school? Should the Scriptures be read? Advantage? Should there be comment?

In the Scripture lesson should the pupils participate, or should the teacher read alone? Why? Suppose the pupils are small? Suppose opposition is made by the people or part of them?

How many elements are there in the organization of a school? What are they? Why should classification be made? Why not impart instruction to all the pupils of a school at the same time?

On what principle, then, should classification be based? What pupils should be put together?

On what does the capacity for receiving instruction depend? Which of the elements is generally made the basis of classification? Show that the other ought also to be regarded. Illustrate.

What classification would you adopt in your school at the beginning of your work? Why? Would you never change the plan thus adopted? Why? Should changes be made gradually or slowly? When gradually, and when abruptly?

Would it be best to make the classes as large or as small as possible? Point out the particular objects of a recitation best attained by each. Can a subject be thoroughly taught to one hundred pupils in the same time as to ten? Why?

Is telling a thing to a class the same thing as teaching it? Show the difference. Is a learned man necessarily a good teacher? In what does the skill of the true teacher show itself?

Is most time saved in a large class or a small one? Is the saving in the ratio of numbers? What can you say of the ideas advanced by the member of the class? Give the advantage. How many are benefited by them?

What can you say of the amount of enthusiasm generated relatively in large and small classes? Show how it operates? What is the effect of solitude on men? Illustrate by effect of numbers in a political meeting. By a person toiling alone on his invention.

Show the advantage of a small class over a large one. Which of the objects of a recitation is best accomplished by each? Show why?

(*To be Continued.*)

A METHOD OF TEACHING SPELLING.

The teacher should supply himself with a spelling-book that he may feel free to make in it any dots, symbols, or remarks that he may choose to make and retain it for reference at all times. At the hour for spelling, the class is called upon the floor and arranged in position convenient for "going up," as in other cases. The teacher takes his position in front, book and pencil in hand. He brings the word pronounced and the pencil in such a relative position that a dot, mark or symbol can be made without being noticed by the closest observer in the class.

The spelling begins at the head of the class, and passes down.

When a word is "missed," the teacher pronounces the next as though no mistake had been made, simply "dotting" the word misspelled. If the next speller notices the mistake, he takes up the word, and if he spells it correctly, is entitled to the "misser's" place, and his word is repronounced to the next speller. If number two does *not* notice the mistake, and spells the word pronounced to him, the misspelled word is passed until it is taken up by some pupil below who, if he spells it correctly, is entitled to the place of the one who missed it. Should the word be missed at or near the foot of the class and pass by the head, and thence down, the person taking it up is entitled to the place at the head of the class as in other cases. Should any words remain at the close of the lesson, not having been taken up, they can be pronounced to the class as missed words and attention called particularly to them, or a word having passed round the class can be repronounced to the one who missed it, or to any other.

The method secures a thorough preparation of the lesson, close attention in the class, and makes accurate, careful, self-reliant spellers. JAMES P. MILLS.

[We do not see the necessity of the teacher's marking the misspelled words. There ought to be no difficulty in keeping them in mind without this.—ED.]

HOW A TROUBLESOME PATRON WAS MANAGED.

Soon after I commenced teaching in Marietta, O., in 1816, two bright and interesting lads, sons of Judge ——, entered my school. The father was one of the associate judges of the county, and was also a good blacksmith. He sent frequent messages to me relative to the teaching of his boys, to which, for a time, I paid no attention. As these messages became rather annoying, I sent a message to him by his oldest son, saying that, as I needed a little exercise, I wished that his father would make for me a nice light ax (saws were not used at that time), that I might cut my own wood. I told the boy to say to his father, by no means *to heat* the iron in making it; that I would not receive the ax if he did so. A day or two after, I met the Judge in the street, when he inquired about the ax. I replied that I had sent him word to make me one. "And what was the message about not heating the iron?" he asked. I replied that I sent word not to heat it. "How am I to make an ax without heating the iron?" he impatiently asked. "O," said I, "hammer it out; I am aware that it will cost you more labor, for which I expect to pay you." "And how am I to weld the steel?" he still more impatiently inquired. "O pound away on it till it sticks," I answered, "and I will pay you well for your labor." At this point he lost all patience, called me a fool, and expressed his regret that I lacked common sense. "But can't you do it?" I asked. "Do it," said he; "no one with common sense would ask such a question." "Please excuse me, Judge," I replied: "I presume I know as little about your trade as you do about mine." The whole matter instantly flashed upon him in a new aspect: he stood silent a moment, and then turned from me with the remark, "Teach the boys in your own way." The boys were a long time in my school after that, but never another word from the father.

Wm. Slocomb.

POSSESSIVE CASE.—No. II.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

"When the singular noun ends in *ss*, the apostrophe only is used to mark the possessive case; as, 'For goodness' sake.' "—*Benedict's Murray*, p. 34.

"When a singular noun ends in *ss*, the apostrophe only is added: as, 'For *goodness'* sake: for *righteousness'* sake;' except the word witness; as, 'The *witness's* testimony.' "—*Kirkham's Grammar*, p. 49.

"When the singular ends in *ss*, the apostrophe only is added, as, 'For *goodness'* sake;' except the noun *witness;* as, 'The *witness's* deposition.' "—*Smith's Grammar*, p. 47.

"The same method of distinguishing the genitive singular, is also adopted in the *written* language, when the singular form of the noun ends in *ss;* as, 'For *righteousness'* sake.' "—*Mulligan's Gram. Struct. of the Eng. Lang.* p. 182.

"Blessed are they which are persecuted for righteousness' sake."—*Matt.*, v: 10.

"For shortness' sake."—*Grund's Tr. of Hirsch's Prob.*, p. 270, and *Müller's Sci. Lan.* vol. I, p. 358.

"For completeness' sake."—*Müller*, vol. I, p. 296.

"For distinctness' sake."—*Müller*, vol. II, p. 385.

"For covetousness' sake."—Quoted by Marsh in his *Lect. on the Eng. Lang.*, p. 427.

"Sir Howard Douglass' Work."—*An. Sci. Dis.*, 1852, p. 56.

I cite the following examples in opposition to the sweeping assertions above quoted which admit *witness's* as the only exception:

"Schoolmistress's" occurs twice on p. 14, vol. ii, of *Hood's Choice Works*; "Cross's" on pp. 146, 185, 186, and "Baroness's best endeavors," p. 108.

"An ass's head."—*II Kings*, vi: 25; *Gent. Mag.* 1839, p. 459; *Plutarch*, p. 461.

"Furness's Veil."—*Harper's Magazine*, vol. 29, p. 11.

"Hotchkiss's New Projectile."—*An. Sci. Dis.*, 1861, p. 49.

"Gauss's."—*Ibid.*, 1858, 412; *Hackley's Trig.*, pp. 152, 182, 183, 183, 184, and 186.

"Harness's."—*Gent. Mag.*, 1834, p. 345; 1838, p. 1; 1840, p. 225.

"Ross's."—*An. Sci. Dis.*, 1850, p. 380; 1853, p. 394; 1854, p. 376; *Harper's Mag.*, vol. i, p. 654; *Gent. Mag.*, 1839, p. 403; *Bartlett's Dict. of Am.*, p. 46.

"Countess's."—*An. Sci. Dis.*, 1853, pp. 255, 255, 256.

"Goddess's Statue."—*Rollin's Anc. Hist.*, vol. i, p. 338.

"Strauss's."—*Harper's Mag.*, vol. i, p. 510; *Morell's Hist. of Mod. Phil.* p. 725.

"Schloss's Bijou Almanac."—*Gent. Mag.*, 1839, p. 553.

> "Who would pass through dangers without fears,
> Should have a pig's mouth and an ass's ears."—*Ibid.*, 1840, p. 117.

"Voss's Services."—*Littell's Living Age*, vol. 46, p. 530.

"Huss's trial."—*Gent. Mag.*, 1841, p. 177.

"Foss's Grandeur of the Law."—*Ibid.*, 1843, p. 1.

"Ross's."—*Kane's Sec. Arctic Exp.*, vol. i, pp. 311, 314.

"Cass's estimate," "Cass's experience," "Cass's expedition."—*Smithsonian Con. to Knowl.*, vol. x, pp. 46, 46, 128.

"Led slowly through the pass's jaws."—*Lady of the Lake*, p. 121.

"She made an attempt to look in at the dear duchess's."—*Jane West's Letter's to a Lady*, p. 95.

"Miss's fine lunardi," "Miss's bonnet."—*Burns's Poems*, p. 44.

> "Did not the illustrious Bassa make
> Himself a slave for Miss's sake."—*Hudibras*, Part ii, *Can.* I. l. 877–8.

In the index of Hudibras are "His mistress's visit," and "His mistress's reply." Steele in the *Spectator* wrote "her mistress's dressing-room," and Addison, "his mistress's heart."

"Cross's Selections."—*Sir Wm. Hamilton's Discus. on Phil. and Lit.*, pp. 120, 383.

These examples are sufficient to show that the possessive singular of nouns ending in *ss* should be written with an *s* after the apostrophe, contrary to the assertion made by Benedict, Kirkham, Smith, and Mulligan, and that the exceptions are properly found only in a few possessives followed by *sake*. This point will be further discussed in a future article.

School Officers' Department.

We have received several printed copies of school regulations adopted by township boards of education, and next month we shall publish a series of rules selected from these and other sources. Our object is to assist those boards who may contemplate the adoption of rules at their annual meeting in April. All township boards having printed rules, will greatly oblige us by sending us a copy.

VENTILATION.

We have recently received a letter from Supt. A. S. Kissell, of Minneapolis, Minn., calling our attention to Ruttan's system of ventilation. He states that after a thorough examination of the system, he induced the board of education to give it a trial. They placed Ruttan-Hawley's Air Warmers, in connection with Ruttan's ventilators, in a new primary building, costing $10,000, and, notwithstanding the mercury stood from ten to twenty degrees below zero, and one day forty degrees below, the last coat of plastering was put on without its freezing. The building has been occupied since Jan. 9th, and Mr. Kissell declares it to be the best ventilated and the most comfortably and economically heated school building he has seen, East or West. He believes that "the system is bound to revolutionize public sentiment on the ventilation of public and private buildings."

We know nothing of this system except what we have learned from Mr. K.'s letter, but we feel fully justified in calling attention to it on his testimony. He is a competent witness, and, moreover, any plan or invention that promises to afford our schools relief from foul air, deserves examination and trial. The plans hitherto tried have not given satisfaction—at least we know of no one that has been a success. What our schools need is *pure warm air*. Ventilation should not be secured at the expense of heat, cold air entering the school-room and warm air escaping. In many school-rooms the only way to secure fresh air is by *raising* the windows or opening the door, and even when windows are so arranged as to be easily lowered from the top (which should always be the case), they are often lowered so much as to let uncomfortable currents of cold air fall on the pupils. Hundreds of children take severe colds in this way. It requires good judgment to manage the windows and regulate the fire of a school-room. A radical reform is certainly needed in our methods of heating and ventilating school buildings and churches.

SCHOOL VISITATION.

Parents ought often to visit the schools which their children attend. Children are imitators, and they are likely to be interested in whatever their parents are interested in; and could their parents not only show an interest in their advancement at home, but also go to the school-room to encourage both child and teacher, the children would imbibe a like earnest spirit and seek to become good scholars. And is it not right that they should do so? What though they entrust their children to competent teachers, ought they not also to look after them? Were a father to build a house would he be satisfied to hire a master-mason and carpenter to do the work, and then let them do it without the least inspection? No: he would visit his house often to see that it was well built, from foundation-stone to ridge-pole. His confidence in the builders would not satisfy him. He must insure good material and good work by constant inspection. And were it not so, his interest in his new house would lead his steps often to it to see it.

It is a duty also of the officers of the schools to visit them frequently. They cannot well manage the schools under their charge without seeing for themselves what their teachers are doing, whether they are competent and faithful or not. Their influence, too, in the school, by way of suggestions, is potent with teachers and scholars alike. It would seem to be a part of their official duty to become acquainted with every department and grade, that they may see the working of each part and of the whole, and thus wisely alter and amend till the whole machinery is complete and works harmoniously from beginning to end. By frequent visitation, also, they become acquainted with the real condition of the schools, their relative forwardness or backwardness, and can devise methods for improvement. Indeed, it is difficult to understand how officers can discharge their duties efficiently, when they do not know from personal examination the real condition of what they manage.—*From Rev. A. H. Ross's Address.*

ADVANTAGES OF THE TOWNSHIP SYSTEM.

The advantages of the township plan are chiefly these:

1st. The more equitable distribution of school privileges throughout the township which would be effected by the township board having the entire field to provide for.

2d. The employment of better teachers. The township board would have more candidates to select from, and could better distribute the teachers employed, according to the character and wants of the several schools.

3d. The equitable apportionment of school funds, almost impossible under our present system, would be comparatively easy, as the whole amount would come into the hands of the township board and be expended by them for the general good.

4th. A more steady management and more stable support of the schools by a board so much weightier in influence and so remote from petty neighborhood quarrels.

5th. The more effective supervision of schools possible under this plan.

6th. The convenience of organizing, when needed, one or more central high schools for the township and the introduction thus of the graded system in the rural districts; and

7th. The securing of a uniformity of text-books and teaching throughout the township."—*Hon. John M. Gregory, Ex-Superintendent of Michigan.*

BLACKBOARDS.

A good way to make blackboards is to color the hard finish before applying it to the wall. The following recipe for doing this is taken from Wickersham's School Economy:

"Four pecks of white finish, a white coating; four pecks of fine sharp sand; four pecks of ground plaster; four pounds of lampblack; four gallons of alcohol or good whisky.

"This quantity will make a mixture sufficient to cover twenty square yards of surface. A little flour of emery will prevent the mixture from '*setting*' immediately; thus giving time to put it on the wall with the necessary care. If emery be not used, only a small quantity of the mixture can be put on at a time; and this is, perhaps, the best plan. The wall which is intended to be covered with the black surface should be plastered like the rest of the room, with the exception that the black mixture takes the place of the white coating and is put on in the same manner. After the black surface is on the wall, it must be carefully rubbed, in order to fill up all the pores and make the surface hard and smooth. If the old surface be well moistened, a new surface, composed of the same mixture, can be applied."

PORTSMOUTH, O., January 20th, 1868.

E. E. WHITE, *Columbus, O.*:

Dear Sir—I desire to correct a statement appearing in the January number of the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY. In the "School Officers' Department" you state that teacher's certificates are exempt from stamp duty by section 154 of excise act, passed March 26th, 1867. This is an error. They were exempted by section 154 of the act of June 30th, 1864, as amended July 13th, 1866. Hence instead of being exempt from March 26th, 1867, they have been exempt since July 13th, 1866.

Respectfully, N. W. EVANS,
Clk. Bd. Sch. Ex's, Scioto Co., O.

SCHOOL LEGISLATION.—At this writing few bills relating to schools have been introduced in the General Assembly, and the indications are that no important changes in the school law will be made this session. We will give next month a summary of all changes of general interest then made.

Editorial Department.

WE approve of the suggestion of an esteemed contributor that a little space be allotted each month to questions from inquiring young teachers. He thinks there are many teachers who, unblest with the advantages of intellectual companionship and professional assistance, would gladly avail themselves of such a means of access to those who are wiser and more experienced than themselves. It would afford them an opportunity to state some doubt on which their minds have been exercised, to seek advice on some point of difficulty, and to bespeak sympathy for some new view that has opened to them. Such inquiries would materially assist us to adapt our pages to the wants of younger teachers, and we cordially invite them to make good use of the space which we shall gladly appropriate to this purpose. A brief and pithy statement of the point at issue is all that is needed, and this may usually be made in a short paragraph. We shall call on our contributors to assist us in the work of clearing up the doubts and settling the difficulties that may thus be brought to light.

A STRONG opposition to the National Department of Education recently manifested itself in Congress, in connection with the civil appropriation bill. In reporting this bill the House Committee on Appropriations omitted to make any provision for the Department of Education, and then added a clause repealing all laws creating departments, thus intending to abolish it. Mr. Donnelly, of Minnesota, moved an amendment making the necessary appropriation, which was earnestly supported by Messrs. Garfield, Pruyn, Baker, and others. The amendment was rejected by a vote of 41 yeas to 61 nays. The clause repealing the law creating the Department was struck out on the ground that it was independent legislation—a point of order raised by Mr. Dawes, of Mass., and sustained by the Speaker. We have recited these facts to apprise the friends of the Department of the fact that it is in danger. No appropriation has yet been made to sustain it, and the question of its abolition may come up at an early day. The united action of the educators of the country can save it. We hope the effort may be promptly made.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT..

A few months since a petition, numerously signed, was presented to the School Board of Boston, Mass., praying for the abolition of the practice of corporal punishment in the public schools. This petition was referred to the Committee on Rules and Regulations, who, after a thorough and thoughtful consideration of the subject, recommended that "the Board continue in the future as in the past to justify the occasional and judicious use of corporal punishment in its schools." They state that they were reluctantly forced to this decision, inasmuch as they regard corporal punishment as abstractly an evil, and had earnestly desired that it might with safety be abolished. The reasons for their decision and recommendation are embodied in a printed report of twenty-four pages, which, we learn, expresses the views of the entire Board, with possibly one exception.

In opening the discussion of the subject, the committee limit their approval of corporal punishment by averring that they do not justify its frequent and indiscriminate use, nor its use as a first resort, except in very flagrant cases. "Only in cases of gross impropriety, or of willful, determined, and persistent defiance of the regulations or of the authority of the teacher, is corporal punishment justifiable." But when thus necessary to enforce obedience and maintain discipline, "*it should be left in the power of teachers and to their judgment.*"

This is the strong position of the report. It is the admitted duty of teachers to exercise proper control over their pupils and to break up vicious and hurtful practices, and to this end they are bound to use, when necessary, every instrumentality which the law justifies. In some extreme cases coporal punishment is the only authorized instrumentality potent enough to enforce obedience. When a school board withholds from its teachers this last resort, it requires them to do what they are denied the legal and necessary means of doing—it compels them "to make bricks without straw."

Moreover, it is urged that the success of the teacher in the use of other instrumentalities often depends on his power to resort to this. The fact that corporal punishment may be resorted to, when necessary, serves as a check to evil courses and affords other agencies an opportunity to exert their moulding and restraining power. Hence, to forbid corporal punishment is to lessen the potency of moral suasion and to increase the difficulty of securing obedience by mild measures—and this view is corroborated by teachers with great, if not with perfect unanimity.

But if corporal punishment is abolished, what is to be done with those pupils that refuse obedience? To suffer their insubordination would demoralize many schools, and produce results of a most lamentable character. The only other resort is to expel them, "pushing them beyond the pale of the wholesome and restraining influence of the school-room into the temptations and dangers of idleness and ignorance." The adoption of such a measure as this is condemned in the strongest terms. The evils connected with an occasional resort to corporal punishment bear no comparison with those which crowd around it. Moreover, the expulsion of boys from school without the exercise of all authorized means of discipline would practically nullify the truant laws of the State—laws adopted for the wise and humane purpose of preventing children from growing up in idleness and ignorance.

These are the principal reasons adduced by the Boston committee against the adoption of a regulation forbidding corporal punishment in the schools, and they are certainly cogent and conclusive. The report closes with a more general discussion of the question, which we hope to notice hereafter.

TEST EXAMINATIONS.

The second of the "unsolved problems" in the management of graded schools, to which we referred last month, may be stated thus: *How to subject the results of school instruction to examination tests, and not narrow and groove such instruction.* This statement implies that it is important that school instruction be subjected to tests, and it also indicates that such subjection is attended with serious practical difficulties, one of which is specified. This is doubtless correct.

In a graded system of schools there must necessarily be some uniform basis of classification and promotion, since the object of classifying pupils is to bring those of like attainments and ability into the same classes that they may thus be able to advance together, and, at the same time, receive the greatest possible benefit from the instruction imparted. To this end the first and essential thing is to determine their relative acquirements and standing by the application of some uniform test, and the more thorough and comprehensive this test, the more complete, other things being equal, will be the classification. To promote pupils on the simple recommendation of their respective teachers, or by classes without reference to relative attainments, is, as all experience shows, subversive of thoroughness and efficiency, and especially is this true in a system of schools comprising several schools or departments of the same grade. Teachers differ widely in thoroughness of instruction, and, as a general rule, the more superficial the teacher the higher is his estimate of his pupils' attainments.

Moreover, teachers, as a class, need to have their work subjected to examination and scrutiny. When properly conducted, such examinations reveal errors in instruction, suggest improvements, check too rapid advancement, and promote uniformity and system. Nor is the fact that such examinations afford teachers palpable data for comparing their success, an offset to the advantages we have named. It is impossible to bring a large number of teachers together without their "comparing themselves among themselves." This is natural, and if the *thoroughness* of their work is not made the criterion, some other standard, as the number of pupils annually promoted, or the amount of ground gone over, is sure to be taken. We have seen graded schools in which all proper classification was destroyed by the strife between teachers to advance their pupils into higher books and studies. This is also sadly true in the ungraded schools of the rural districts. In the institutes teachers not unfrequently raise a doubt respecting their ability to carry out our instructions respecting the advancement of their classes. They say that teachers all about them are taking classes over an entire reading lesson, for example, at a single recitation, and many go through the book in a single term. They express the fear that if they advance their classes more slowly, they may not receive a much credit for success as their colleagues.

But it is not our present purpose to defend test examinations, but rather to point out the source of their cramping and narrowing influence, and to ascertain how this difficulty may be avoided.

The grooving influence of test examinations has its source, evidently, in the character of the tests and in the use made of the results. No one familiar with the written examinations to which our schools are ordinarily subjected, will deny that they are often exceedingly narrow and technical; that they often "emphasize and make imperative all the detailed lumber of the text-books." It may indeed be stated, as a general fact, that school instruction is never much wider than the tests by which it is measured, and the character of these tests will largely determine its character. If the tests are text-bookish, the instruction will be text-bookish; if the tests run to figures, the instruction will run to figures; if the tests cover only a part of the studies, the non-test studies will receive little attention. The principal of one of the Grammar Schools of Philadelphia once said to us, in substance, "My success as a teacher is measured by the per cent. of correct answers my pupils give to the list of questions prepared annually by the principal of the High School. Whatever qualifications his tests call for I must produce or fail. Nor can I stop to inquire whether my methods of teaching are right or wrong. *I must prepare my wares for the market.*"

The fact that the results of these examinations are used as a means of *comparing* the success of teachers, greatly increases their narrowing tendency. The per cent. of correct answers given by the several classes or schools brought into competition, is sometimes published to afford the public, if not the school officers, a measure of the comparative efficiency of the different teachers. We have seen few teachers who were able to resist the temptation of such a system, and, in spite of it, teach according to their better judgment. We have seen blackboards covered with "probable" questions, and classes meeting before and after school to be crammed with set answers to them. We have seen classes memorize the names of all the bones in the body, and hundred of dates in American history, or spend weeks on the mechanical processes of mensuration, because these were known hobbies of the question-maker. We have seen the instruction of an entire corps of teachers largely concentrated on three or four test studies to the almost utter neglect of other branches of equal, if not greater importance. We have seen principals neglect the lower classes in their schools, and for weeks give all their time and energies to the special cramming and drilling of their first class—the one to be subjected to the comparative test. We have seen pupils thus fearfully overtasked. We have seen the most bitter rivalries spring up between different schools, and the health of teachers and pupils sacrificed to high per cents. And all these evils were largely due to the fact that the results of the test examinations were used to *compare* teachers and schools—to measure their relative success and standing.

The two causes of this difficulty, which we have pointed out, suggest the remedy. We specify:

1. The tests should be made as wide as the approved course of instruction. They should cover every important study and embrace every important exercise. We are aware that this can not well be done when the examinations are conducted exclusively in writing. Let the written tests be supplemented by oral examinations, and the results be combined in the tables. Competent judges ought to be able to give an estimate, on a definite scale, of the reading and singing of a school, and also of its discipline, moral life, manners, and general culture. It is true that this would require time, but are not these things as im-

portant as the narrow and technical knowledge now covered by the written tests?

2. The questions should be so framed as to test the pupil's knowledge of the *subject*, rather than his familiarity with the text-book. They should test his comprehension of the leading truths and essential principles, with little reference to details and minutiæ. In a sentence, examination tests should place training before cramming and culture before technics. It is true that classes thus examined will not reach as high a per cent, as when the tests are confined strictly to the text-books, and largely to the memory. But to assist the pupil to attain a high nominal standing is not the object of the test, but rather to ascertain what he actually knows and to indicate *what he ought to know.* Examination questions should, when practicable, be prepared by those who are not directly responsible for the standing of the pupils, and they should have little reference to the instruction which the pupils have actually received. The simple inquiries should be, "What ought pupils of the age and advancement of these under examination to know?" and "What questions will constitute a fair and thorough test of this knowledge?" Questions thus prepared, will very likely be found broader than the instruction they test, but this is far better than to have them narrower. We have seen a corps of principals, sitting in committee of the whole on examination tests, rule out a fair and proper question, simply because it fell without the text-book used. Every question approved came within the prescribed course of instruction. It is no wonder that classes thus examined reach a high per cent.; nor is it strange that instruction grooved by such tests should fail to bear a fruitful and generous culture.

3. The examination should embrace the entire school. This will prevent the neglect of the lower classes to give special attention to the higher, and by distributing the pressure over a wider area, will check, to some extent, overtasking and cramming. We know of no more vicious mode of comparing schools than by the standing of the highest class, or the candidates for promotion to an upper grade. We have in mind an instance in which an annual examination was made, contrary to expectation, to embrace all the classes in the schools. A school which had before stood well, but not the highest, shot up considerably above any other in the city. The explanation was found in the fact that the principal had faithfully instructed his entire school instead of concentrating his efforts on a single class.

4. Our final suggestion is, that the results of test examinations should not be used for the purpose of comparing schools, especially those located in different districts and buildings. We have watched this matter carefully for years, and our conviction is strong that such comparisons are, as a general rule, unjust and mischievous. There is often a marked difference in the intelligence of the people in the different districts, and also in the number of pupils under instruction, which the public make no allowance for. Moreover, these comparative tables often put a premium on special cramming and false teaching, and sometimes on downright dishonesty. The teacher who ignores higher motives and bends all his energies to secure a high percentage, is rewarded; while he who scorns to degrade his calling by preparing "wares for the market," is condemned. When the schools brought into comparison with each other, are in

the same building and under the same principal, these evils are more readily avoided.

The use of different sets of questions in the different districts or buildings would, as it seems to us, afford the necessary comparison between pupils and classes, and, at the same time, avoid the general comparison of schools.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

There is increasing evidence that this branch of study is soon to take its true place as a constituent part of common-school instruction. Our schools have long been grinding over and over the miscellaneous facts of local and descriptive geography, and by adding a few new items to the successive grists, the process has been continued well nigh *ad infinitum*, certainly *ad nauseam*. It is now proposed to shorten or lessen this miscellaneous course, and to supplement it by a systematic study of the great physical facts which underlie and determine its mass of details. Respecting both the importance and the feasibility of this change, all well-informed educators are substantially agreed. All are convinced of the folly of putting children through the FOUR and FIVE books which make up our ordinary series of geographies.

There is, however, a difference of opinion respecting the time and manner of introducing physical geography. Some would place it as late as the high school course; others would introduce it as early as English grammar; while others would make it the basis of all geographical instruction. This last view is, in our judgment, the one most likely to prevail, though in a modified form. Physical geography as a complete science, including not only physical facts, but their explanation—the *physics* of the earth's surface—is clearly not a child's study. It belongs to a later stage of mental development. But physical geography has its facts which can be represented to the eye, as well as its theories and laws which can only be grasped by the reason—it has its perceptive as well as scientific phase. Now it is this perceptive phase of the study which can and should be made a constituent part of the elementary course.

This view—and we can not stop to elucidate—divides geographical instruction into three steps, viz: 1. Introductory—mainly oral, and designed to lead the child to the discovery of those primary ideas which lie within his observation. 2. Intermediate—embracing the perceptive phase of local, political, and physical geography. 3. Physical—including not only the facts but the principles of the science.

The second of these steps is the one most difficult to take. It does not consist in the study of verbal descriptions of the physical features of the earth, but in the discovery of these grand features by the study of maps representing them clearly to the eye. *It is a step of map study and map drawing.* In taking it good maps are more important than verbal descriptions, and these maps must represent the surface as well as the size and contour of land-masses —must show their plains, plateaus, mountain and river systems, etc. Guyot's excellent physical maps are a fine illustration of what is needed in this direction.

We wish to add that these three natural steps in geographical teaching indicate that but three books are really needed for the course, to wit, (1) a primary book, with a suggestive syllabus of oral instruction; (2) an intermediate book, consisting largely of maps and map exercises; and (3) a good treatise on physical geography. The second book should contain some descriptive matter, but the pupil should be prepared for its study by both systematic and incidental oral instruction connected with the map exercises.

MISCELLANY.

We are printing an edition sufficiently large to enable us to send back numbers from January to all new subscribers. We hope to be able to do this until as late as the first of May or June. We shall announce next month the name of the person who is to receive "Webster" for the largest list of subscribers, sent since December 1st.

We wish to inform "C. N." of Clarksville, whoever he may be, that we have said nothing about not supporting ether nominee for School Commissioner. There is some difference between not supporting *candidates* for nomination before a convention and not supporting the person nominated—the *nominee*. What we said was that we should leave the *nomination* entirely to the convention.

Dictionaries in the School-Room.—When we visit a school we always like to find a well-used dictionary on the teacher's table. A good dictionary is a prime necessity in the school-room. This fact has induced the legislatures of several states to make appropriations to place a copy of Webster's Dictionary in the public schools. This was done by Wisconsin a few years ago, and every year since a few additional copies to furnish new schools have been secured. The number of copies just forwarded for this year's supply, is 225. The young States of the West are making rapid strides in educational progress.

Physical Law.—A correspondent takes exception to I. W. A.'s definition of a physical law as "the statement of a fact," found in the article on "Law" in our January issue. If only carbonic acid gas and hydrogen, when brought into contact in a closed vessel, diffused themselves equally through that space, this solitary fact, he claims, would not, of itself, constitute a law. But when, by experiment, we have ascertained that all gases act in the same manner toward each other, then we have discovered the *law* of the equal diffusion of gases. The fact that oxygen and hydrogen unite in definite proportions to form water does not constitute a law, but rather the system of facts respecting atomic combinations, to wit: that all bodies unite only in certain definite proportions. We must discover an analogy or a mutual dependence of facts before we reach a physical law. He states, however, that he entirely agrees with the drift or purpose of the article.

Cincinnati.—Supt. Hancock's first semi-annual report is largely devoted to the consideration of questions connected with primary instruction, and is decidedly progressive. It does very little "white-washing" and has less consideration for venerable errors and deep-rutted routine. The new methods of teaching geography, object lessons, and composition, adopted at the beginning of the year, are represented as more than meeting expectations, while the course in drawing is not satisfactory. Changes in the methods of teaching this and other branches are recommended. Two tables are given showing the average per cent. of school attendance in twelve of the leading cities of the country—the first computed on the basis of enrollment, and the second on the average number belonging. Cincinnati leads in both tables. The necessity of a truancy law is strongly urged.

CUMMINSVILLE.—We take special pleasure in making a note of the progress of the schools in our smaller towns, villages, and townships, and are always thankful for any information which enables us to do so. In the schools of Cumminsville there are employed nine teachers including the principal and two teachers of German. The number of pupils enrolled since September is 426, and the present enrollment is 352. Five general examinations are held each year, three of which are by printed questions. The examination for transfer is at the close of the year. The course of study in the highest department (called the "Intermediate") prepares pupils to enter the Cincinnati High Schools, where many of the pupils go. The schools are in charge of Mr. E. N. Clopper, and are in a flourishing condition. Eight of the teachers are subscribers to the MONTHLY.

MT. UNION COLLEGE.—Pres. Hartshorn has returned from his European tour, and is again at his post. He visited the various localities of interest in Great Britain and on the Continent, and brought away numerous choice specimens in natural history and natural science; also specimens of antiquities and curiosities, with paintings, engravings, apparatus, etc.—all of which are to be placed in the college cabinet and museum. Soon after his return he was invited by the students and citizens to deliver a course of lectures on his travels. The lectures were given on the 12th, 13th, 19th and 20th days of February, and were very interesting and instructive.

THE STRATTON MONUMENT.—We are glad to learn that a suitable monument is to be erected over the remains of H. D. Stratton in Greenwood Cemetery, N. Y. Mr. S. was for years the business manager of Bryant & Stratton's Chain of Business Colleges, and his many friends will rejoice at an opportunity to unite in this last testimonial to his memory. Contributions are limited to one dollar.

H. B. FURNESS, till recently principal of the Seventh Ward School, Milwaukee, Wis., has taken charge of the Third District School, Dayton, O., at a salary of $1.500. The *School Monthly*, of which Mr. Furness was the principal editor, says that Milwaukee has lost a "a good citizen, a successful teacher, and a man of no ordinary culture—a man esteemed and loved by all who knew him." It also acknowledges that its success, hitherto, has been due to Mr. F. more than to any other person. We welcome Mr. Furness to Ohio, and trust that the *School Monthly's* loss will be the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY'S gain. He has made a good beginning by sending us *ten* subscribers.

MRS. MARY K. EDWARDS, widow of the late Wm. N. Edwards, Troy, O., has been appointed by the American Board to the charge of the girls' boarding school at Inanda, Natal, South Africa. She expects to sail in April or May, and, to this end, has resigned her position in the public schools of Troy—a position she has filled with the highest success for nearly seventeen years.

ALFRED KIRK, principal of the Middle Grammar School of this city, has been elected superintendent of the public schools of Van Wert, O. Salary $1,500.

OTHER STATES AND COUNTRIES.

ILLINOIS.—The meeting of the State Teachers' Association, held at Galesburg, Dec. 24th, 25th, and 26th, was probably the largest ever held in the State. More than 600 teachers were present. Addresses were delivered by A. M. Brooks, President of the Association, President Edwards, of the Normal University, and Dr. Gregory, Regent of the State Industrial University. Prof. Sanborn Tenney, of Vassar Female College, N. Y., gave three lectures, his subjects being "Corals," "Physical Geography," and "Zoology." A paper was read by Dr. Willard on "Proper Methods of Imparting Moral Instruction"; by Mr. Ethridge on "The Grading Practicable in Country Schools"; by Mr. Heslet on "Compulsory Attendance"; and by Rev. Robert Allyn, formerly of Ohio, on "The Co-education of the Sexes." Miss Snow conducted a class exercise in "Map-Drawing"; Mr. Scribner, of Chicago, in "Penmanship"; and Prof. Hewett, in "Teaching Geography." Geo. F. Root, of Chicago, conducted several exercises in Vocal Music. Several of the topics presented were ably discussed. A resolution was adopted strongly commending the "Township System"; another recommending the establishment of a normal school or schools in Southern Illinois; and another that county superintendents be required by law to hold a State diploma of qualifications.

The last annual report of the Board of Education of Chicago is a volume of 310 pages, and is full of information of local and general interest. We find it difficult to omit a reference to what is said on teachers' salaries, the location of primary schools in separate buildings, the supplying of pupils with text-books, and oral instruction. We hope to find the necessary space hereafter to give an abstract of the recommendations on these points. We learn from the report that the number of youth in the city between six and twenty-one years of age, is 53,100; number of pupils enrolled in the schools, 27,264; average number belonging, 16,392; average daily attendance, 15,413; average number of cases of tardiness to each pupil belonging, 3.4; number of suspensions each month for absence, one in every 400 pupils. Supt. Pickard is clearly doing an excellent work.

CALIFORNIA.—The January number of the *Teacher* contains two editorials by Hon. O. P. Fitzgerald, recently elected State Superintendent of Public Instruction. We hope these articles may tend to harmonize "conflicting views and feelings", but they strike us as very injudicious. The number also contains several extracts from ex-Supt. Swett's last report, and if they fairly represent the document it is one of marked ability. We learn from these extracts that the rate-bill system was succeeded by a free-school system in June last, and that free schools, open to every child, have been maintained three months in the smaller districts and five months in the larger districts. "One-third of the teachers in the State hold State diplomas and certificates, and one-twelfth of the teachers are graduates of the California State Normal School." These and other facts show that the retiring superintendent has been an efficient and able officer. The number of schools in the State is 1,083; number of pupils enrolled, 61,227; average number of months of school, 7.2; average annual salary paid male teachers, $554—female teachers, $460; total expenditures for school purposes, $1,163,349. The State Normal School is in a flourishing condition.

MICHIGAN.—The meeting of the State Teachers' Association, which was held at Lansing, January 1, 2, and 3, was doubtless the largest and most satisfactory ever held in the State. We judge from the minutes that an equal number of "professors" have never before been assembled together in this country. Addresses were delivered by Profs. Winchell and Sill—the latter on "The Effect of Teaching on Teachers", and papers were read by Profs. Hewitt, Payne, and Wayland, and Miss A. C. Rodgers.

Among the topics discussed was "Compulsory Education." Resolutions were adopted hailing the county superintendency; recommending the establishment of another normal school, to be located in the western part of the State; commending the *Michigan Teacher* for its interesting and beautiful pages, and for the high standard it has taken—a commendation most richly deserved. The meeting of the State Association was preceded by a meeting of county school superintendents, and also by a meeting of city school superintendents.

KANSAS.—A late number of the *Emporia News* contains Principal Kellogg's report on State Normal School for the year 1867. It gives a very clear and full idea of the practical working of the school and its needs and capabilities. The character of the professional training provided is indicated by an extended series of questions relating to the theory and practice of teaching. The questions are very suggestive. The report also contains letters from eminent educators giving an account of the normal school work in seven States (Ohio is not included!) and also in Upper Canada. In a word, we can say that the report presents a better view of normal instruction than any similar document that we have seen, and it must prove a valuable contribution to the cause. We rejoice that the great work of professional training has been so well begun in Kansas.

GREAT BRITAIN.—The passage of the Reform Act has given an immense impetus to the cause of popular education. In the House of Lords, on the second of December, Earl Russell moved:

> That in the opinion of this House, the education of working classes in England and Wales ought to be extended and improved; every child has a right to the blessings of education, and it is the duty of the State to guard and maintain that right.
>
> In the opinion of this House, the diffusion of knowledge ought not to be hindered by religious differences; nor should the early employment of the young in labor be allowed to deprive them of education.
>
> That it is the opinion of the House that Parliament and Government should aid in the education of the middle classes, by providing for the better administration of charitable endowments.
>
> That it is the opinion of this House that the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge may be made more useful to the nation by the removal of restriction, and by the appointment of a commission to consider the better distribution of their large rewards for the purpose of instruction in connection with the said universities.
>
> That the appointment of a Minister of Education by the Crown, with a seat in the Cabinet, would, in the opinion of this House, be conducive to the public interest.

These resolutions were rejected by the Lords, but the discussion which they called out, shows that their adoption can not long be postponed. Mr. Lowe's recent speech at Edinburgh and Mr. Bright's at Manchester both strongly indorse the principles embodied in them. As a basis of future action a complete census of education in England and Wales is to be taken. It was stated in the discussion that thirty per cent. of the adult population in England and Wales are unable to write their names.

FRANCE.—In fifty-five of the eighty-nine departments of France, from thirty to seventy-five per cent. of the persons married in 1866 could not sign the register. The *Siecle* asks, "Is it not a shame?" and frankly admits that in primary instruction France is in the lowest rank of the European powers. Instead of creating a new military organization, it advises that the Government begins "by beating Prussia" in the education of the people. Something of a beginning has already been made in this direction in the organization of a system of night schools for the free instruction of laboring men and women. Thirty thousand of these schools, with 40,000 teachers and 823,000 adult scholars, are now in operation; and at a late competitive examination in writing, 1,200 adult laborers prepared compositions that were correct in orthography, syntax, and general arrangement.

DR. LIVINGSTONE, the African traveler, is alive and well. Positive advices lately received in London from Africa, leave no longer any doubt of his safety.

BOOK NOTICES.

THE ART OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION. By HENRY N. DAY, Author of "Logic," "Rhetoric," "Rhetorical Praxis," etc. New York: Charles Scribner & Co.

THE ART OF DISCOURSE: A system of Rhetoric adapted for use in Colleges and Academies, and also for Private Study. By HENRY N. DAY. New York: Charles Scribner & Co.

These two works have been on our table for several weeks, receiving some attention and waiting patiently for more. We have at last completed their examination, and are now able to commend them as works of decided merit. Moreover, their publication seems to us decidedly opportune. Educators are now waking up to the fact that in teaching analysis before synthesis, and grammar before language, they have been using an unnatural and unphilosophical method.

The treatise on the "Art of English Composition" embodies the views expressed by the author in an excellent contribution to a recent number of the *American Journal of Education*. It makes the *thought* the true starting point and the ruling element, and treats the forms of language as the mere embodiment of thought. "In the study of one's own tongue," says the preface, "the commanding object is to learn not how to get the thought out, but how to put the thought into language, and it is against nature to begin with the study of words, of style." Synthesis is made the road to analysis. The distinction between the subject and predicate is also clearly set forth, and the various forms of verbal expressions are treated in the light of this distinction. The work is characterized by the strictest method, presenting throughout a constant progress based on what has already been learned. We wish we had space to give the characteristic features of this work more in detail. All we can say is, that it is sound in philosophy and excellent in method.

The "Art of Discourse" is a reconstruction of the author's "Elements of the Art of Rhetoric"—a work widely known and approved. The principal changes are in the direction of a fuller application of logical and æsthetic principles to the construction of discourse, and a more definite presentation of the diverse processes of unfolding thought. Each of these processes are presented separately and largely by a synthetic method, the author's aim being to make practical thinkers and writers rather than to impart a bald knowledge of rhetorical principles.

THE CAMBRIDGE COURSE OF ELEMENTARY PHYSICS. Part III. Astronomy, pp. 300. By W. J. ROLFE and J. A. GILLET, Cambridge, Mass. Boston: Crosby & Ainsworth.

In a small, beautifully got up volume, we have a lucid and comprehensive summary of the principal facts and laws of astronomy, not to be merely accepted and memorized by the learner, but, as far as the various branches of the subject admit, to be submitted to his judgment, by a statement of the means whence the knowledge of the phenomena was acquired and of the evidence on which they rest. Thus his logical faculty is constantly exercised, and he is, as nearly as possible, placed in the position of an observer brought to witness, as it were, the gradual rise of the science by the progress of observation and discovery. The necessary apparatus is described in perspicuous language and represented in very distinct outline figures.

Mathematical demonstrations or illustrations are given whenever practicable, requiring from the reader only a knowledge of Geometry and Plane Trigonometry, and a tolerable familiarity with the common manipulations of elementary algebra.

Of course, the supposing in the reader an acquaintance with a few fundamental propositions in Conic Sections, would have enabled the authors to demonstrate very satisfactorily the principal theorems of planetary motion. But, instead of blaming, we must rather thank them for having resisted a temptation, the yielding to which would have placed this book out of the reach of those for whom it is chiefly intended, the bulk of our High School boys and girls.

At each stopping place is given for review a short summary. Some of these struck us as peculiarly felicitous by embodying, in a condensed form, the substance of the previous lessons.

The most characteristic feature of this book, at least of parts I and II, is its being more suggestive than explanatory; instead of furnishing to teacher and pupil mose results, with which each can cram himself, they are constantly called upon to draw certain inferences from certain facts. Mere reading and memorizing will not do; each must thoroughly prepare himself for his respective work of examination or recitation. The size of the book forbids an exhaustive discussion of each topic; therefore, in the class-room, the blackboard and celestial globe must be in constant requisition, to fill up the outline of each lesson. This characteristic, in which consists the chief excellence of the work, is less apparent in the second part, which treats of the physical features of the heavenly bodies. This is necessarily descriptive chiefly, and may be thought rather sketchy and vague. But the deficiencies, if any, can be made up by oral instruction in the school-room. We wish, however, that the subjects of tides and eclipses had been more fully treated. We should greatly like to point out from our notes, the passages which pleased us most; but space forbids. We may, however, be allowed to mention that the Precession of the Equinoxes, that most difficult subject, so generally bungled in our elementary books, is more clearly explained than we have ever seen it before, even by Sir John Herschel in his Outlines of Astronomy.

It were invidious to complain of some omissions that struck us as we were reading, especially as we hope to see them supplied in the forthcoming "Hand-book of the Stars."

T. E. S.

ELEMENTS OF PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY: Together with a Treatise on the Physical Phenomena of the United States. Illustrated by One Hundred and Fifty Engravings and Thirteen Copper-plate Maps, Executed in the First Style of the Art. By JOHN BROCKLESBY, A.M., Professor in Trinity College, Conn., and Author of Elements of Meteorology, Astronomy, etc. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. Quarto, 164 pp. 1868.

This treatise is another evidence of an increasing appreciation of Physical Geography as a school study. Soon all our leading series of geographies will be crowned with a similar work, and, as a consequence, the study will receive attention in all our schools. We welcome every contribution to this important result, and Professor Brocklesby has certainly made a valuable one. His work presents the science in its latest development, and bears evidence throughout of careful research. There is a judicious selection of materials, and, at the same time, each subject is unfolded with satisfactory completeness. We are specially pleased with the conciseness and clearness with which the important facts and principles are stated and elucidated. No intelligent pupil will grope after the author's meaning. The several leading topics or divisions of the subject are treated in their natural and, we may add, usual order, to wit: 1. The Earth as a Planet. 2. Its Structure and Formation. 3. The Land. 4. The Water. 5. The Atmosphere and its Phenomena. 6. The Life of the Globe and its Distribution. Each of these topics is so discussed as to present not only facts but also their explanation. The globe is viewed as a wondrous mechanism in which all the parts are adapted to each other, and phenomena and their causes are conjointly presented. This fact adapts the work to the classes in our high schools and academies and the higher classes in our common schools. In other words, the work is designed to follow the ordinary text-books in geography, and, for this purpose, it will be found a superior treatise. As a specimen of typography, it is excelled by no American text-book that we have seen. It is printed from large and clear type, and is admirably illustrated by numerous engravings, executed in the finest style. We must confess, however, that we are disappointed in some of the maps. The "Map of the Globe" does not present the *configuration* of the earth's surface, although introduced in connection with this very subject. What is here wanted, in our judgment, is a good *physical* map—one presenting clearly to the eye the plains, plateaus, and mountain systems of the continents, as well as their contour. Most of the maps are excellent. A want of space forbids further comments. We can only add, that we wish that this excellent treatise was in the hands of every teacher in the country.

THE MINOR PROPHETS; with Notes, Critical, Eplanatory, and Practical, designed for both Pastors and People. By Rev. HENRY COWLES. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 435.

The design of this work is to furnish Bible readers of all classes with a clear and thorough exposition of the twelve Minor Prophets. There is in it no parade of learning, and no tedious self-evident applications of the truths elucidated. The author has searched for the true meaning of the original text as for hid treasure, and when he has found it, he has presented it to others clearly and definitely. He has put the reader in possession of the *results* of careful research and study without obliging him to go over the processes by which they have been reached. The work is characterized by philological precision, sound interpretation, and a most admirable spirit. We know of no commentary on these prophetic books of equal value to the general reader. A copy of the work will be sent by mail, postpaid, on receipt of the retail price ($2.25). Address Rev. Henry Cowles, Oberlin, Ohio, or the Publishers.

A TEXT-BOOK OF ETHICS. For Union Schools and Bible Classes. By JOSEPH ALDEN, D.D., LL.D., Author of "Elements of Intellectual Philosophy," "The Science of Government," "Christian Ethics," etc. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. Pp. 92.

This little volume by the author of "Christian Ethics," an excellent work which has been strongly commended in these pages, is designed for more elementary classes. It contains twenty chapters, presenting as many important topics, and is arranged on the plan of questions and answers—a plan much liked by many teachers, but which we find it difficult to commend even in a primary work. It has, however, the advantage of breaking up the text into brief paragraphs, thus admitting of great conciseness. The lessons are nearly all based on the teachings of the Bible, and many of the answers are given in its inspired words. At the same time the work is entirely free from all traces of sectarianism. We sincerely hope that it may be the means of securing increased attention to the subject of moral culture in all our schools.

SANDER'S UNION FIFTH READER: Embracing a Full Exposition of the Principles of Rhetorical Reading. By CHARLES W. SANDERS, A.M., Author of a Series of School Readers. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co.

Our examination of this new reader has given us a very favorable opinion of its merits. Most of the selections possess a high degree of excellence and all are good, and the historical and biographical notes which are appended, present much valuable information. Many of the selections are from recent speeches and writings, and we are pleased to note that they are brief, and that the book is thinner than most readers of this grade—an excellent feature. Part I contains thirty-four pages of elocutionary exercises, in which the subjects of articulation, accent, emphasis, inflections, modulation, and pauses, are treated in a simple and concise manner. The analysis of the elementary sounds and the drills in the same are very satisfactory. We do not set a high value on rules for inflections, but we can commend, with few exceptions, the exercises given under them. The mechanical execution of the book is a credit to the publishers. The typography is open and clear; the paper is of fine quality; and the binding, neat and durable. If we do not greatly misjudge, this work will take high rank.

ELEMENTS OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. A Book for Beginners. By W. J. ROLFE and J. A. GILLET. Boston: Crosby & Ainsworth. 1868.

This is a duodecimo of 127 pages, large type, and is designed to be used in grammar and districts schools. It treats of pressure (weight, centre of gravity, etc.), motion, and machines, and presents each subject in its most elementary form. Many simple experiments are described and illustrated, and always with a view to draw out the principle involved and to aid in its clear comprehension. At the the end of each topic is a concise summary, followed usually by a number of excellent problems. We have examined the work with great satisfaction, and can commend it as the best manual of Natural Philosophy for sub-high school classes that we have seen.

RUDIMENTS OF THE GERMAN LANGUAGE. Exercises in Pronouncing, Spelling, and Translating. By Dr. F. AHN, Author of the "New Method of Learning the German Language." American Edition, Improved and Enlarged. New York: E. Steiger. Pp. 90.

This little work presents the elements of the German language in a manner admirably adapted to the capacity of young learners. One element after another is introduced, and each is made familiar by oral and written exercises, which consist of easy German sentences to be translated into English, and *vice versa.* These are accompanied with vocabularies and the grammatical forms of the words used in the sentences, grammatical principles and technics being very sparingly introduced, or rather being gradually *deduced.* In our judgment the work presents the true method of teaching German to children, and we predict its extensive use.

WORMAN'S ELEMENTARY GERMAN GRAMMAR. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1867.

This little work of only 222 pages is upon the plan of Woodbury's Grammar. A hasty glance at the work leads me to think that I would prefer it for beginners to the larger works which I have used in classes, namely, Adler's, Ollendorff, Woodbury's Grammar, and Soden's Grammar. There is a typographical error in the first line of Lesson VI, in which *c* is said to have the sound of *ts* before *a*; also a German "ypsilon" is printed for an English y in the last line of p. 31. The paper of the book is rather rough, like that of several of the books issued latterly by the same house.

W. D. H.

FIRST LESSONS IN NUMBERS, in the Natural Order: First, Visible Objects; Second, Concrete Numbers; Third, Abstract Numbers. By JOHN H. FRENCH, LL.D. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This little book, based on the natural order of mental development, presents a well-arranged series of oral or mental exercises in the combination of numbers. Each combination is introduced by objects represented by pictures, and abstract numbers are reached as the final step. This is the true idea. The old plan of beginning with abstract numbers is unnatural and unphilosophical, and is being abandoned by the best teachers in the country. It ignores the perceptive faculties, and appeals almost exclusively to the memory. The book is most beautifully illustrated, the cuts being large and attractive pictures, and the typography is excellent. Its weak point is the absence of slate exercises, which should be introduced as an essential element of the primary course in numbers.

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NOTES ON TEACHING NATURAL SCIENCE.

NO. III. SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

Before entering upon the discussion of any theme in science, it is desirable first to review the necessary preliminaries which have already been settled by the general agreement of experts and scholars. It is assumed that the review is *bona fide*, and that the parties concerned, both teacher and pupils, are prepared to advance. In these notes it is impossible to connect one theme with another in logical sequence, or to do more than briefly indicate a few of the generally accepted definitions and customs. In this paper, for instance, much more matter has been prepared than can be used, and although many points are merely touched, upon which it would have been a pleasure to dwell, yet the article has reached an inordinate length. It is to be hoped that Horne Tooke's motto—*Dum brevis esse laboro, obscurus fio*—does not apply to the bulky residuum.

Preliminary.—The weight of a body without reference to its size is its *absolute weight.* The weight of any given unit of volume is its *specific weight.* Absolute and specific weights vary with the varying intensity of gravity; *e. g.*, they are greater at the poles than at the equator.

The *ratio* of the weight of any volume of a substance to the weight of an equal volume of another substance, accepted as a standard of comparison, and under like conditions, is the *specific gravity* of the substance taken. Specific gravity is, therefore, an invariable quantity expressing how many times heavier a body is than an equal volume of the standard at the same time and place. The investigation therefore requires: 1. The standard. 2. The conditions of comparison. 3. The methods of comparison.

I. The universally accepted standard for the comparison of solids and liquids is *distilled water*. The usual standard for aëriform bodies is *air;* but the new school of chemists has adopted *hydrogen.* The latter is to be preferred from its homogeneousness, its lightness, and certain other considerations connected with atomic weights and specific heats.

II. It is evidently required that the bodies compared should be subject to precisely the same influences; therefore (*A*) as heat does not expand any two bodies in exactly the same ratio, the temperature is taken or calculated at a given degree. The English speaking chemists generally take 60° F. for all bodies; the French and the "new school" take water at its greatest density (39°.2 F.) and all other bodies at the temperature of melting ice (32°F.)

(*B*) Atmospheric pressure is ordinarily an important consideration in regard to aëriform bodies only. Some chemists reduce all determinations to vacuo; the English standard is 30 inches barometer; the French is 760 mm = 29.96 inches bar. (*C*) It is assumed that the bodies are weighed at the same place, whereby an equality in the attraction of gravitation is assured. (*D*) For ordinary purposes, rain water is a sufficient approximation in purity as regards this standard.

It is well to know the relations which exist between the standards. Equal volumes being taken, water at 39°.2 F. is 773 times heavier than air at 32° F., and at 60° F. it is 816 times heavier than air at 60° F.; hydrogen has .0693 the weight of air: therefore, if hydrogen at 32° F. be taken as unity, air is nearly 14.5 and water 11163 times as heavy. Under the normal French conditions one litre of hydrogen weighs .089578 gramme. The weight of a cubic inch of water at 62° F. 30 in. bar. is 252.456 grains; in vacuo = 252.722 grains.

III. Specific gravity is found by dividing the absolute weight of a body by the absolute weight of an equal volume of the standard.

(*E*) It is easy to obtain equal volumes of liquids. Almost any light two ounce vial may be used as a specific gravity bottle. All that is necessary is to mark on its neck the level to which 1000 grains of distilled water will rise, when poured in it. Of course, it is not imperative that the bottle should contain exactly 1000 grains; that number is used merely because it is a convenient divisor.

(*F*) It is also easy to find, by means of this vial, the weight of a volume of water equal to that of small fragments of mineral. (1) Fill the bottle to the brim with water; (2) drop the mineral carefully into the bottle; (3) catch and weigh the water that runs over. Then, specific gravity of mineral = weight of mineral in air ÷ weight of water displaced.

If all substances could be formed into shapes that admit of accurate measurement and weight, we could easily reduce these to a common volume and determine their specific gravity at once. In demonstrating this subject before a class, it is a decided advantage to have a few inch volumes of different solids, in order to fix in the minds of the class the fact of unequal weights, the reason for comparing them, and the practical utility of the discovery of Archimedes.

The principle of Archimedes is of such constant application, that it is well to make thorough work in exemplifying it. First, convince the pupil that a body submerged in any fluid loses weight. (*G*) By common experience in lifting a heavy stone out of water into air. A deep tub of water and a large stone will answer for the experiment. (*H*) Having suspended a solid from an equipoised balance, call attention to the loss of equilibrium when the solid is immersed in water. A common spring balance will demonstrate this, if masses as large as a brick are used. A general rule in experimenting is, that a lack of delicate adjustment of apparatus may partially be compensated for by the use of larger quantities. When the object sought is demonstration before large classes, it is often preferable to obtain clearly marked results at the expense of accuracy. (*I*) Show that the loss of weight varies with the fluid. Hang an egg or a sound potato from a balance, and having submerged the solid in rain water, bring the balance to equilibrium. Now add salt, little by little, to the water, and it will be found that the solid exerts a continually diminishing pull on the scales, until, at last, it floats and ceases to affect the balance.

Secondly, determine that the weight lost by a solid submerged in a fluid is exactly equal to the weight of the fluid having a volume exactly equal to that of the solid. (*J*) Mark the height of the liquid, before immersing the solid and after, by means of strings tied round the jar. Draw this quantity off by a pipette or by a siphon, and compare the weight of this with the weight lost by the solid. A graduated jar will afford an easy means of calculating the volume of liquid displaced. A cylindrical litre measure, graduated in centimetres, is a perfect luxury to have in these experiments.

(*K*) Take a vessel with a lip, and fill it to the brim; place a glass rod in a bowl, and let the rod rest against the lip of the vessel; grease the under edge of the lip to prevent the fluid from going in any direction but down the rod; now immerse the solid, catch and weigh the liquid that runs over into the bowl; then compare as before. (*L*) The best method is by the cylinder and bucket experiment of the text-books; but the apparatus is not always to be had. Apply any one of these methods to some other liquid as brine or alcohol, or both, and compare the weight lost in either with the loss in water.

(*M*) Finally, give the demonstration required by the theory of equality of pressures in Hydrostatics. Do not neglect to impress the result attained by each method; viz: *The weight lost by a solid immersed in any fluid whatever is exactly equal to the weight of an equal volume of the fluid.*

The application of the principle of Archimedes is an easy matter. It naturally falls into three divisions: 1. To solids heavier than water. This needs no comment. Specific gravity of solid = weight of solid in air ÷ loss of weight of solid in water. 2. To solids lighter than water. If many determinations of this character are to be made, it will be found convenient to use the same sinker of lead or brass, and determine once for all its weight in air, and loss of weight in water. The steps in the calculation are—

$$
\begin{array}{lllr}
(a) & \text{Air weight of heavier solid,} & = & a \\
 & \text{“ \quad “ \quad lighter \quad “} & = & x \\
\hline
 & \text{“ \quad “ \quad both solids,} & = & x+a \\
(b) & \text{Loss in water of both solids,} & = & x'+a' \\
 & \text{“ \quad “ \quad heavier solid,} & = & a' \\
\hline
 & \text{“ \quad “ \quad lighter \quad “} & = & x' \\
(c) & \text{Specific gravity of lighter solid} & = & \dfrac{x}{x'}
\end{array}
$$

3. To fluids. Since a cubic inch of water weighs 252 grains, a heavy sphere one inch in diameter will lose in water 133.3 grains, and in any other liquid in proportion to the density of the liquid.

A *specific gravity bulb* can easily be made of a boy's glass marble, by suspending it by means of a fine wire, preferably of platinum. A marble a trifle over 0.9 inch in diameter, may readily be ground away so as to displace exactly 100 grains of water, thus affording a convenient divisor. One of the best forms of this instrument is made by ballasting a very short test tube with mercury or shot, and hermetically sealing the open end, at the same time bending it into a hook. Then, sp. gr. of a fluid = loss of weight of bulb in the fluid ÷ loss of weight of the bulb in water. No method of obtaining the specific gravity of liquids excels this in point of general convenience and accuracy.

Precautions.—As it is difficult to maintain constantly any other temperature than that of melting ice, it is sometimes desirable to make the weighings in water containing ice, and then allow for the difference in temperature. Thus one volume of water at 32° F. becomes 0.99988 vol. at 39°.2 F., and 1.00084 at 60° F. The specific gravities corresponding are, at 32° F. = 1, at 39°.2 F. = 1.000115, at 60° F. = 0.99915.

It is important to exclude all air bubbles from the body submerged, because of their buoyant effort. To do this, dislodge them by passing a pigeon's feather gently about the body.

The string that supports the body should not be longer nor heavier than is actually necessary. Except for corrosive liquids and heavy solids, the best supporters are human hairs, the finer and longer the better. These should be carefully washed, first in alcohol, then in ether, to remove every trace of oil, and then wound separately on a card.

Of course none of these precautions are of any service, unless the weighings can be conducted with accuracy on delicate balances. With fine balances, it is not expedient to use more than a dram or so of the solid. The air weight should be taken first. In very careful determinations, the solid is first heated to drive off all moisture, and then cooled in air which has been dried by contact with sulphuric acid. The reason for this is that all solids are more or less hygroscopic. S. A. N.

(*To be continued.*)

◆

THERE is not a man of any race so low that you can not by the line of education catch him and bring him to the surface of the water and find *gold* in his mouth.—*Beecher.*

A COURSE OF STUDY FOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

BY PHILOMATH.

It is just at this period in a course of education that literary men and teachers begin to differ essentially as to what branches of study should receive most attention. What has preceded has seemed to be of so little moment as to give no occasion for warmth in debate, and yet a truly philosophical view of education would necessitate a closer scrutiny of its foundations.

The contest all along has been three-sided, the parties engaged being respectively special friends of the mathematics, the languages, or the natural sciences. Nor is it surprising that the strife between these parties should have at times grown heated, nay, even intemperate, for they represent the three natural tendencies or aptitudes of the mind which are easily nurtured into passions. This is so true that what seems to many the driest of mental exercises, almost destitute of nutrition, so to speak, (I mean the mathematics,) becomes often intensely delightful to the mind preöccupied with its processes. In the performance of simple addition, for example, little children are frequently known to display a degree of mental feeling so intense as to send the blood rushing to the head. The same may be said of any class of mental aptitudes when specially trained.

In John Stuart Mill's address on a higher course of study, I find this remarkable passage:

> "This question whether we should be taught the classics or sciences, seems to me, I confess, very like a dispute whether painters should cultivate drawing or colouring, or, to use a more homely illustration, whether a tailor should make coats or trousers. I can only reply by the question, Why not both? * * If there were no more to be said than that scientific education teaches us to think, and literary education to express our thoughts, *do we not require both?* Short as life is, and shorter still as we make it by the time wasted on things which are neither business, nor meditation, nor pleasure, we are not so badly off that our scholars need be ignorant of the laws and properties of the world they live in, or our scientific men destitute of poetic feeling and artistic cultivation. I am amazed at the limited conception which many educational reformers have formed to themselves of a human being's powers of acquisition."

A definition of education must comprehend the whole of human nature, and a course of study which fails to provide a due variety of food for the mental life is unworthy of acceptance. Now let us take the human mind as we find it when entering upon its career in the world, and provide for its education accordingly. Let us quickly abandon the absurd folly of special education for a pursuit in life. It is worse than folly for a youth to begin special preparation for a specific work, which, once begun, must be life-long, before his faculties are sufficiently matured in some measure to value that life-work correctly. How many good mechanics have been lost to the community by too great haste in turning the minds of youth in the direction of law or theology! How many more good lawyers and efficient ministers might have been afforded to society by a more liberal and comprehensive education of those who were quite capable of mastering the learned professions.

Nor is the question presented to educators for settlement, one of thoroughness of preparation for a specific work, nor yet, "how to live well," as Mr. Spencer would have it, unless, indeed, that writer will include in living well, something more than he has yet mentioned; but rather, and above all other questions, how best, freely, and completely to train all the natural appetites of the individual, until they are made harmonious among themselves, and have acquired independent power. And it is incumbent upon education to supply its subjects with more than a single resource with which to enter upon this life-work.

The human mind, then, is not organized upon "one idea," but upon several. Its history displays a complement of leading ideas governing its growth in society. Its pursuits and accumulations of knowledge have followed definite and marked pathways under the guidance of these leading ideas. Now higher education must be shaped into concordance with its organization, its growth, and the plainly marked lines of progressive knowledge.

Assuming, then, that the common branches of an English course have been well taught and mastered, which can be done, surely, in nine years of school life, the pupil may fairly be supposed ready to enter upon a high-school course at fifteen, to continue in the high school not longer than three years. Let me briefly remark that this will be long enough, because the work proper can be done and pupils be prepared for college in that time, because a longer course is not willingly entered upon with a view to completion, and because in three years a practical and highly profitable amount of culture can be completed. Up to this time it is presumed that the training has followed natural channels suited to the development of mind, and has obtained for the pupil knowledge that will serve as a secure ground work for advancement.

It would be improper as well as unnecessary for the pupil to begin any thing *essentially* strange to the intellect. The science of quantity may be continued in its higher branches through plane trigonometry—algebra being studied one year and a half, geometry and plane trigonometry one year. Elementary astronomy will serve as a fitting termination to the course in mathematics. So much, at least, should be done to develop the idea of quantity found lodged in the mind at its birth. This is sufficient; for the youth has acquired enough to prepare him for college, and enough to "set him up" in practical mechanics.

The natural sciences should not have been wholly deferred till the beginning of the high-school course, for there is much that ranges under natural science that might be fittingly placed with the "common branches." But suppose instruction in these sciences to begin with the high-school course, and I think it will still be practicable to complete natural philosophy in one year, physiology and botany each in half a year, and chemistry in one year. Of course, it is not understood that when we speak of completing a branch, it is meant that the subject is exhausted. But we do affirm that in the time specified, an intelligent, industrious teacher can put his pupils on the right road to an interested and successful pursuit of the sciences mentioned.

It seems scarcely necessary to urge the importance of the sciences as forming part of a just plan of culture. No one can safely claim that the knowledge they afford may, with justice to the mind constituted to love nature and live among her forms and scenes, be dispensed with. The natural sciences will be most useful in mind culture, not as means of supplying mere facts out of relation to each other, in whatever quantity, but when yielding in due arrangement that food which the mind through observation, memory, and the grand law of association makes part of its own nature, thus bringing nature and human nature into harmony. Mind demands to be made acquainted with the facts of the world wherein it must work out its destiny.

But not less important than either of these are the forms through which the immaterial consciousness whose states and activities can neither be numbered nor represented by physical forms, must find intelligent expression. Language performs its own peculiar part in the life and growth of the mind. Assuming respecting this, as of the other *lines* of study, that the English language here where it is spoken, has been rightly taught the child throughout the *nine years* preceding his entrance into the high school, it is recommended that the Latin language be studied three years. This would be giving language an equal place in the curriculum with mathematics and the natural sciences. Latin here in America, or in England, will be of greater practical value to more persons than either German, French, Spanish, or Welsh. In France the schools prefer Latin to English or German; in Germany it is taught more than French or English. This is true of France and Germany, because Latin, next to the mother tongue, is there properly thought to be the best means of culture in language. (I am not posted as to Spain and Wales.) The same is true in America.

That some one language besides our own should be studied, seems to me very important for the following reason, among others: Thought is expressed in words, and is sought for in words. The mind is naturally inclined to be satisfied with convenient, though often ill-suited, words to express its thought, and can with difficulty be persuaded to look below the surface for the truer and deeper meanings of words. Let any one faithfully examine his own mind in this particular, and he will be astonished at his own carelessness, and lack of force and wit, in speaking, hearing, reading, and thinking. Words do not come to us laded with meaning, because we fail duly to RE-SPECT them. This is a great evil in education.

Is it not true that in the use of our own language, we too easily fall into the habit of using words carelessly, and of skimming over sentence, paragraph, and page? Such a habit constantly leads to weakness of intellect, and there needs to be something to counteract the evil tendency and train the mind in an opposite direction. I know of nothing better suited to this purpose than the Latin language. It has, to recommend it as a means of culture, that accuracy and permanence in the forms which represent ideas, that give to exact science their chief value in education. Modern languages are constantly changing their forms.

Now the signs of the times show that language-culture is to take a prominent place in our courses of study. I hope to see the day when language will be made to represent *the* leading idea in education. Of course with us the English language must stand first, from beginning to end, as a part of a thorough education, but Latin should come next in order, and be put on an equality with the sciences and mathematics.

The high-school course of study should also embrace English and general history, and American and English literature. American literature and English history may employ the first year, alternating with each other day by day, and English literature and general history will consume the time due to one branch for the remaining two years.

Composition, reading, and declamation should not be neglected, as is often the case. Language, if rightly taught, will afford a basis for composition; indeed, this will be its most useful office; and *all* the branches of study should be so handled by teacher and scholar as to afford subject-matter for essay writing. It at once occurs to any one, that nothing can be said to be *well learned* which can not be reproduced by the mind which claims to have knowledge.

The following is an outline of the course of study above advocated:

FIRST YEAR.

1. Algebra—five lessons per week.
2. Natural Philosophy—five lessons per week.
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{American Literature}\\ \text{English History......}\\ \text{English Composition}\end{array}\right\}$ —five lessons per week.
4. Latin and Composition. $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\text{Eng.} & \text{L.}\\ \text{Lat.} & \text{E.}\end{array}\right\}$ —five lessons per week.

SECOND YEAR.

1. Geometry and Trigonometry—five lessons per week.
2. Physiology and Botany—five lessons per week.
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{English Literature....}\\ \text{General History........}\\ \text{English Composition}\end{array}\right\}$ —five lessons per week.
4. Latin and Composition. $\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\text{Eng.} & \text{L.}\\ \text{Lat.} & \text{E.}\end{array}\right\}$ —five lessons per week.

THIRD YEAR.

1. Chemistry—five lessons per week.
2. Latin and Composition—five lessons per week.
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Elementary Astronomy}\\ \text{Geometry (reviewed)....}\end{array}\right\}$ —five lessons per week.
4. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{General History.......}\\ \text{Mental Philosophy...}\\ \text{English Composition}\end{array}\right\}$ —five lessons per week.

It will be noticed that each term's course embraces only three branches which require hard study. History and English literature should be taught by reading and conversation between teacher and pupils, as a pastime. The text should not be memorized.

A fourth year, embracing Latin (continued), Greek (begun), Logic, and Geology, might be added, but these studies properly belong to the college course.

BE YE PERFECT.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

The greatest of philosophers declared, centuries ago, that education consists in giving the body and soul all the perfection of which they are susceptible. And this is a grand truth that needs to be reiterated from age to age. It were well if all men could be convinced that their master obligation is to strive towards the highest and the best. It becomes a teacher especially to entertain and advocate broad views of the possibilities of human nature, and the sublime purposes of education. It is true that no one can hope, in this short life, to realize Plato's idea of education in giving body and soul all the perfection of which they are absolutely susceptible. Nevertheless perfection should be the aim of all. A lower aim will not suffice. He who makes perfection his object will accomplish all that others of lower aim do, and something else besides. Various are the motives which call forth human energy. Some struggle for what is called "success in life." Some endeavor to attain the result of culture that Matthew Arnold calls "sweetness and light." Some cultivate their faculties that they may render important service to their fellow men. Some develop their powers that they may live to the glory of God. But he whose motive is perfection, is on the direct way to "success in life," "sweetness and light," "service of man," and obedience to God. Whatever faculties or powers have been manifested in any human being, probably exist in every complete person. The development of these is approximation to perfection. Individuals appear destined, in this life at least, to only a partial development of their faculties. This fact should not deter us from a constant effort to make the most of every element of our nature. We know not our special destiny, and if we neglect any faculty, it may turn out to be the very faculty we need. to use. The best way to bring out particular talents is to stimulate all the talents, and give them full scope. There is no danger that nature will neglect our aptitudes. That which we call genius, like murder, will out. But even the glory of genius depends upon the general strength and health of the faculties, as the perfection of a flower depends upon the strength and health of leaves, branches, roots, and all the other organs and parts of the flower-bearing plant. This familiar figure of the plant suggests the word culture, which, in its broadest sense, indicates, as far as they may be indicated, the processes of education by which perfect development is sought. What is the culture adapted to man—the "infinite in faculties?" What station, what soil, what pruning, what heat and light are demanded by this noble perennial, which, like the Igdrasil of northern mythology, has its roots in the depths of the earth and its branches in the sky of heaven. What country, what society, what teachers, what schools, what labor, what reading, what amusement must it be supplied withal? Any and every influence is good for man which seems to advance him toward "that perfection which is a harmonious expansion of all the powers that make up the beauty and worth of human nature, and is not consistent with the over-development of any one power at the expense of the rest."

We must shun an education exclusively physical, intellectual, or moral. A good heart can effect but little without the coöperation of a good head; and even if head and heart are good, a bad stomach may defeat them both. We must not break the human chain. Each link reinforces the others. Each faculty helps and is helped by its associates. It has been demonstrated that the exact form and proportions which constitute human beauty, also supply the conditions of perfect health and strength. If this is true of the body, why not of the soul?

The beginning of all development is aspiration and resolution. The desire to do or become something, is the father of faithful endeavor. "Where there is a will, there is a way." It is hard to prescribe rules of education. The music-composer extemporizing on the piano succeeds best when, forgetful of all scientific directions, he throws himself into a rapture of musical emotion, and follows the strong impulse that, like an unseen magnet, draws his fingers to harmonious chords. He can not preärrange the movements by which the silent keys are made to yield strains whose melody may charm the world. He can not tell how his faculty for music was educated. The poet can not tell you how in the fine phrensy of the creative mood, he strikes into poor common words lightning out of the empyrean, so that they burn, and throb, and glow forever. He knows not by what process the power of conceiving sublime and beautiful ideas was reached. The musical faculty, the poetic faculty, are developed by their exercise. So are all the faculties. Nature has hidden in each of them a latent longing to act and expand. All they need is something to act upon. The whole material and spiritual universe is destined to react forever upon human nature. It was a suggestive fancy of the Alchemists that in the body of man is to be found something corresponding to every different substance in the world. In a deeper sense than the Alchemists knew, man, body and soul, is, as Lord Bacon intimates, the *microcosm*, reflecting in his mysterious constitution the infinity of creation.

TOO MUCH ARITHMETIC.

The discussion on Higher Arithmetic at the meeting of the State Association in Zanesville in July, 1866, took me by surprise. It developed a unanimity of opinion in regard to arithmetical instruction, which was as unexpected as it was gratifying. My own convictions, that much more time was allotted to it than was consistent with the claims of other branches, had long been held and had often been expressed in conversation; but I was not prepared to find that so many others had reached the same conclusion. This opinion is not peculiar to Ohio. It comes to us now from various quarters. Earnest teachers are becoming greatly dissatisfied with the prominence given to arithmetic, and are giving utterance to their conviction that the school period can be made much more profitable than it is.

Let us look at the facts in our own State. According to the last report of the School Commissioner, the total number of pupils enrolled in the schools was 728,990. The report gives thirty-six branches of study, with the number of pupils attending to each. Omitting from the list the alphabet, reading, spelling, and writing, also composition, declamation, drawing, vocal music, map-drawing, and oral lessons, and also German, which was studied mainly by German children, there are left twenty-five different branches, with the number of pupils engaged in the study of each. These branches are mental arithmetic, written arithmetic, geography, grammar, history, algebra, physiology, physical geography, natural philosophy, geometry, trigonometry, surveying, chemistry, geology, botany, astronomy, book-keeping, natural history, mental philosophy, moral philosophy, rhetoric, logic, Latin, Greek, French.

The number of pupils pursuing these various branches is as follows: Mental arithmetic, 210,036; written arithmetic, 247,552; geography, 156,851; grammar, 96,553; the twenty-one other branches, 32,746. This gives a total of 743,738.

The smallness of this total is surprising. If the pupils were studying each two branches, on the average, the total would have been twice the number of pupils enrolled; that is, 1,457,980, instead of 743,738. Making all due allowance for the number of children that are too young to learn lessons of any kind, one can not but be surprised at the results stated above. A very large number of the pupils in the public schools are studying each but one study.

If we notice the distribution of the pupils among these various studies, we are still more surprised. Counting mental arithmetic and written arithmetic as one branch, we find that the twenty-five branches mentioned above occupied the attention of the pupils in the public schools in the following proportions: Arithmetic, 61 per cent.; geography, 21; grammar, 13; the twenty-one other branches, 5. Could anything be more astounding? Here are twenty-one branches of knowledge, nearly every one of which is considered indispensable to a well-educated man, to all of which is given only one-twelfth the attention that is paid to arithmetic alone! If other States show statistics like these from Ohio, the assertion which the writer made before the National Association of Teachers at Indianapolis in 1866, was fully warranted by the facts: "That in the case of a majority of the lads in the United States, time enough was *wasted* in the study of arithmetic to give a very fair knowledge of Latin."

Unquestionably, there is a large number of pupils in our schools that study nothing but arithmetic. Some take geography in addition, and a few others study grammar also. In our high schools, and to a limited extent in our grammar schools, the range is wider; but in very many of the ungraded schools the education obtained is most meagre and narrow, as our statistics show.

In arranging a course of study, two questions need to be considered with regard to each branch that is to be introduced. The first is, How much time can be devoted to it? The second is, How can that time be most profitably employed? Besides reading, writing, spelling, etc., and besides the exercises in declamation, composition, vocal music, etc., there are, say, twenty-five branches of knowledge to which it is desirable for the pupil to attend, and a fair knowledge of which not a few do obtain in the twelve years from six or eight to eighteen or twenty. But to accomplish this no one study must receive a disproportionate amount of time. The work must be properly laid out; the field must be carefully surveyed. It is evident that in the mass of our schools, arithmetic has monopolised the ground. Relatively to other branches, this one is largely in excess. With any just regard to the claims of the twenty and odd departments of knowledge whose aggregate time is *five*, while that of arithmetic is *sixty-one*, this last should not occupy the pupils in our schools more than one-third of the time which it now receives.

But if a proper regard to other studies makes it imperative on us to reduce the amount of time now bestowed on arithmetic, the duty is not less manifest from a consideration of the pupil's attainment in arithmetic itself. In answer to the second question propounded above, How can the time which may properly be devoted to a particular study be spent most advantageously? it may be said that so far as arithmetic is concerned, a part of the time should be given to something else. Too much time is spent on arithmetic absolutely, as well as relatively. Not only is time devoted to it which ought to be given to other things, it is also studied too much without reference to other branches.

Our public schools are divided into two classes. Those of one class have the same teachers through the year; they are graded schools. In these arithmetic is taught systematically and continuously, till the pupil is supposed to be familiar with it. Usually, the pupil goes through a number of books on the subject. He goes over the same ground again and again, though not with the same book or in the same grade. In this way an undue proportion of time is given to this branch. Time is also wasted by keeping the pupil at the higher parts of it, when he has not sufficient maturity of years to enable him to comprehend them.

In the ungraded schools the loss arises in a different way. The pupil does not usually study so many arithmetical works in succession, but he goes over the same ground again and again in the same book. In many cases the pupil attends school three or four months in the winter only. During the summer he forgets partially what he had learned the previous winter, and on the commencement of the next school he begins back. Probably there are thousands of lads in the State who have studied arithmetic for half-a-dozen winters in succession, and yet have never finished the book.

The evil in the ungraded school could be remedied by the teacher more easily than in the graded one. In the latter, the teacher must conform to the course, substantially, though the course may be a bad one. But in an ungraded school the teacher should not allow the pupil to repeat the same work year after year. If the pupil wished to go back, because he had forgotten, still he could be taken rapidly along. In a multitude of cases it would be better to drop the arithmetic entirely for the winter, and substitute something else. This, however, would be regarded as an innovation. Arithmetic is almost sacred in the eyes of many parents. Algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, they know nothing about, and they do not believe they will be of any use to their boys, who expect to be farmers, or business men of some sort.

The mass of our schools are narrow. They offer scarcely any variety. Reading, spelling, arithmetic—these are the staples. Sometimes a little geography is added, and more rarely a little grammar. Parents and children seem hardly to have dreamed of the possibility of doing anything outside of this meager range. And thousands of teachers, I fear, are as ignorant as parents; or, if not absolutely ignorant, have not force sufficient to enlarge the course.

In the graded schools the difficulty is different. The course of study, as a whole, may be broad enough; but usually that part of it below the high school *is* narrow. The pupil is expected to pass an examination well-nigh perfect in arithmetic, geography, and grammar before he can enter the high school. In order to do this he is compelled to drill and drill and drill on these; whereas, if he could have dropped them, at least arithmetic, and taken elementary algebra in place, and after an interval returned to his arithmetic, he would in a much shorter time have obtained a much better knowledge of arithmetic, and secured very considerable familiarity with algrebra in addition.

Regarding, then, the knowledge of arithmetic alone, we ought to abridge the amount of time given to it. When the ground rules have been so well learned that the pupil can add, subtract, multiply, and divide with accuracy and rapidity, and to these have been added denominate numbers, reduction, and fractions, let the pupil take up elementary algebra. The study of this will help him amazingly when he comes back to arithmetic. He will understand better the portions which he has already studied, and his progress in interest, proportion, etc., etc., will be facilitated to an extent almost incredible to one who is ignorant of algebra.

The range of studies in our winter schools ought to be increased. The schools of the State will never approximate to the degree of excellence which they ought to attain, till this is done.

The same may be said of our town schools in the grade below the high school. Put algebra into the grammar school, and perhaps geometry, and perhaps also Latin. Let us give up the idea that a lad who has begun arithmetic must never lay it aside for anything else till he has become master of it. The idea is simply absurd. As well keep a blacksmith's apprentice at work at horseshoes till he is perfect in them, not allowing him to strike a blow at a piece of iron in any other form.

These statistics should be remembered: Arithmetic, 61 per cent.; twenty-one other branches, including history, algebra, natural philosophy, etc., etc., 5 per cent.! And this in the enlightened State of Ohio.

Marietta College, March 11, 1868. I. W. A.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS OF CINCINNATI.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

English Grammar shall be taught in the District Schools *without* a text-book; the instruction shall not be given according to the strictly systematic and scientific course, as pointed out by most English school grammars, but in a more natural and practical way, by numerous exercises in correct speaking and writing. The teacher shall not aim at a recitation of grammatical rules and definitions, but at a ready and correct use of the language itself—the latter alone having a real and practical value for the future career of the scholar. The *Reader* (*i. e.*, selected lessons, each prepared for a special purpose in the teaching of grammar) should be the source from which the pupil obtains his grammatical knowledge; and correct speaking and writing (composition) will and must follow, as the natural result of that knowledge. In short, instruction in grammar shall aim to make good thinkers, speakers, readers, and writers; but it shall not content itself with making ready reciters of the rules of grammar. For this reason, instruction in this branch can not be delayed till the scholar arrives at the highest grade, where bad habits in speaking and writing have been so firmly established that the best instruction in grammar, and the greatest energy of the teacher, will not be able to extirpate them. Instruction in language must precede the teaching of the A, B, C,—as nations first learned to *speak* before they learned to *read;* it must begin with the child's first school day, by teaching it how to speak. The influence of this instruction must be perceived in every recitation; for the judicious teacher will not confine it to certain hours of the day, but he will constantly turn his attention to it, during the hours devoted to arithmetic and geography, as well as during the lessons exclusively devoted to language. For this purpose, the teacher himself must speak a well-cultivated and refined language; not only in respect to the use of words and to grammar, but also in respect to delivery. He must acquaint himself with the principal standard works on English language, and make use of any good material which may be found in such works, or which his own genius may invent, provided it can be appropriated to the exercises of his grade.

From this view, the following special directions should be pursued:

SPECIAL DIRECTIONS.

GRADE F.—Pupils shall be taught to speak short sentences, containing either such words as occur in the Syllabus of Object Lessons, or such as the teacher may deem appropriate to the children's capacity, and to use the same in both numbers.

Particular attention is to be paid to correct language and orthoepy on the part of the teacher.

GRADE E.—They shall be taught to distinguish the nouns, adjectives, and verbs in the Reading and Object Lessons, and to give both numbers of the same; to use correctly the articles *a* and *an*, the demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* in the singular and plural, and the verb in the third person, singular and plural, present tense, indicative mode; shall also distinguish the commencement and the termination of each sentence, by capital and period, respectively; and know the proper use of the personal pronoun I (as a capital letter).

GRADE D.—They shall be taught to distinguish the degrees of comparison of adjectives, the use of the possessive case of nouns in the singular, the three cases (nominative, possessive, and objective) of personal pronouns, and of the interrogative pronoun *who;* shall conjugate any verb in the two tenses (present and imperfect), indicative mode. They shall be required to place the same in sentences, and to use them in the interrogative, negative, and affirmative form; also, to transform sentences from their Reader into the two tenses.

In this grade, the exercises must be frequently written, and mistakes corrected, relating to improper language, punctuation, and capital letters.

Grade C.—They shall be taught to distinguish the subject, predicate, and object in simple sentences; the nominative, possessive, and objective case of nouns and pronouns, and to decline the same; shall be taught the formation of adverbs derived from adjectives, as well as the use of prepositions, and to place the same in correct sentences. They shall also conjugate the verbs in the three tenses (present, imperfect, and future), indicative mode, and study the following prefixes, forming, as they proceed, derivations from the more prolific roots: ab—, ad—, con—, de—, dis—, en—, in—, mis—, out—, per—, pro—, re—, sub—, and un—. Formation of affirmative, interrogative, and negative sentences, and frequent written exercises, in this grade.

Grade B.—They shall be taught to distinguish all the elements of simple sentences; to conjugate active and passive verbs in the four tenses (present, imperfect, perfect, and future), indicative mode; shall review and complete the course of prefixes, adding the suffixes; form derivatives from roots, and use them in appropriate sentences.

Grade A.—They shall be taught the remaining modes of the verb, and their uses; the meaning and conjugation of the auxiliary verbs, as well as the use of the conjunctions. They shall continue to distinguish and name the elements of simple sentences; shall be taught to enlarge simple sentences, by adding adjunct elements to the subject and predicate, and to parse the words in such sentences. They shall also be taught to define a selected number of Latin and Greek roots; to form derivatives from them, by means of prefixes and suffixes, and to use all such words in proper sentences.—*Rules of School Board.*

THE THEORY AND ART OF TEACHING.

(*Concluded.*)

DAILY PROGRAMME.

Is it well to have a programme of daily exercises? Its effects in saving time? To whom does it save time? Show clearly.

Show the effect of a programme of daily exercises in the discipline of a school. Make clear statements and give good reasons.

Show the influence of a daily programme upon the preparation of pupils for citizens. How does it affect the number of schoolroom annoyances?

Should all studies in school receive the same amount of time? Mention some studies requiring a comparatively long time. Why should arithmetic be one of these?

Does reading require much or little time compared with other studies? Why? How does it compare with other studies in difficulty? In importance? Why?

Is it possible to derive much mental culture from the study of literature? Whose thoughts are found in books? What thoughts? Is it easy to fathom the thoughts of great men?

Does spelling require a long time? Why? Is it well to have a time in school assigned to the study of each lesson? Why?

RECITATIONS.

What is a recitation in the strict sense? What in the ordinary school sense? By what other name might it be known? Give the etymology and meaning of the word.

How long and how frequent should recesses be? For young children? For older ones? Why?

How many chief purposes has a class exercise? Which should come first? Why? What should determine the quantity and quality of knowledge imparted to pupils?

In respect to what should pupils be examined in class exercise? Enumerate five things. Why in respect to lessons assigned?

What is meant by a sense of responsibility, and how may it be promoted by the daily examination? Is it important to teach children to be industrious? How may that be done? How do the pupil's earnest efforts to learn a lesson affect his capacity for receiving instruction?

Is it useful to give pupils an acquaintance with books? How may it be accomplished? What constitutes a scholar? What teachers are in danger of neglecting to examine pupils on the lesson assigned?

Does every pupil who faithfully studies a lesson and states its contents, understand it? What bad result is possible here? Illustrate fully. How shall this be avoided?

Does the pupil's method of learning a lesson make any difference as to its value? What are some of the bad habits of study and of thinking which the teacher should correct?

How should a spelling lesson be learned? How should it not?

How should the geography of South America be studied? How should it not? How should a problem in arithmetic be solved? How should it not? What do these suggest?

Is it important to teach pupils a correct use of language? How important? How can it best be done? Is it a matter of philosophy or of habit? How does any one, child or adult, learn to use language correctly? Should corrections of ungrammatical expressions be explained in class?

What may the teacher do in the recitation exercise by way of teaching honesty to his pupils? What ought to be our object in all study? Illustrate. Show how the teacher may lead his pupils to dishonesty? How do men learn to be dishonest?

Should pupils recite standing or sitting? Promptly or slowly? Distinctly or doubtfully? Why? In whole or fragmentary sentences? What connection can you point out between thought and language?

What is meant by direct instruction? Give a clear illustration. By indirect instruction? Which is intentional?

Mention several important things which may be taught indirectly. What shall the teacher do in each of these cases?

Ought the teacher to give much instruction in the class on subjects aside from the lesson? What is the danger? In view of this, what kind of illustration should be used? Shall it be such as requires explanation?

How much explanation should be given in the class on each subject? Much explanation requires the pupil to use what faculty only? It takes away from the pupil what necessary stimulus? What is the law of growth in strength? Illustrate.

Should the teacher incite the pupils to study? Is it not true that children love knowledge? What then is necessary here? Shall we aim to accomplish this by itself, or in connection with the other objects of a recitation?

Mention some methods of inciting pupils to study. Point out several ways pertaining to instruction and government, by which this end may be attained.

How shall lessons be assigned, questions asked, and explanations given, in order to incite pupils to study?

State the merits and defects of questions read by the teacher from the bottom of the page of the text-book. Do such questions accomplish any of the purposes of a recitation? What ones do they fail to accomplish? Show how they may be used for evil by the pupil.

State the merits and defects of questions that suggest the answer. What is it to suggest the answer? How many and what are the principal ways of doing it? Are these questions most objectionable in examination or instruction?

Explain the Socratic method of teaching. Is it to be used in examination or instruction? Tell the story of Socrates and Aristodemus.

Show the value of questions demanding for an answer "yes" or "no." What do they fail to accomplish? Explain this point fully. Are such questions *ever* useful?

Is it well to ask questions to be answered in concert? For what purpose should they be asked? What can they *not* accomplish? What can you say of the attempt to depend solely upon them? Has it ever been tried? By whom?

Is there any method of hearing recitations without questions? If so, explain it. Is it better than the method by questions? When should it be used? When should questions be used?

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

State the order in which the child's faculties are developed. Is this investigation necessary for a teacher? Is the child's mind, in all respects, like that of the adult? Wherein alike, and wherein different? What faculties are undeveloped in the child? What is meant by this?

Has the child any knowledge at first? Has he physical power? Has he moral power, or conscience? What is conscience? What are its functions? Is the knowledge of right and wrong possessed by all? Show what is undeveloped and what is not in this respect.

How is the mind first aroused to activity? What power, then, first demands culture? What does the child first learn? How many avenues are there through which this kind of knowledge reaches the mind? Show what the mind acquires through each of these avenues.

What illustration is presented by the history of Astronomy? Give the names of illustrious Astronomers, and show the part they performed in the work.

What sources of knowledge are furnished to the child in its earliest years? What two adaptations are exhibited here? What is shown here of the Creator's beneficence?

School Officers' Department.

Several of the State educational journals are taken by school boards and directors, and every where their beneficial influence on the schools is marked and evident. The testimony is abundant that there is no other expenditure of school funds that secures proportionately so large an increase in the efficiency of the schools. In Pennsylvania a copy of the *School Journal* is sent, at the expense of the State, to every school district, and, in addition to this, boards of education may take a copy for each of their members. Many of the boards have thus taken the *Journal* for years. Our judgment is certainly not misled by interest when we say, that a copy of the Monthly ought to go into every sub-district in Ohio. Its perusal by directors and teachers would prove a potent means of imparting increased efficiency and success to the schools.

RATES OF TAXATION FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES.

Since the publication of the last volume of Ohio School Laws, in 1865, section twenty-two of the general school act has been *twice* amended—April 4, 1866, and again April 1, 1867. As the amended section may not be accessible to all boards of education, we give below the rates of local taxes for school purposes now authorized by law:

I. *In Townships.*—Township boards of education are authorized to estimate and certify to the county auditor—

1. A levy of not exceeding *two* mills for *school-house purposes*, including the erecting, enlarging, and repairing of school-houses, and the purchase of sites.

2. A levy of not exceeding *three* mills for all other school purposes, including the payment of teachers, the purchase of fuel, furniture, maps, registers, etc. Any article which, in the judgment of the board, will contribute to the success and efficiency of the schools, may be paid for from the funds arising from this levy.

3. This year (1868) a supplementary or additional tax of *one* mill may be levied to pay any indebtedness already incurred, or for the purpose of erecting or repairing school houses.

It will thus be seen that in 1868 (this year) a local school tax of *six mills* may be levied by township boards of education—*three* mills for school-house purposes (including indebtedness), and *three* mills for other school purposes.

If in the opinion of the township board a greater tax for school-house purposes is necessary, a special meeting of the qualified voters of the township may be called to decide whether such or any greater tax shall be levied.

II. *In Separate School Districts.*—Boards of education in cities, incorporated villages, and other separate or special districts, "*under any law of this State*," have power to levy a tax of *six* mills for school and school-house purposes. They are also authorized to levy this year (1868) a supplementary tax of *one* mill to pay any indebtedness incurred, or to repair or erect school-houses.

Thus the total tax authorized to be levied in 1868 (this year) by boards of education of separate school districts, is *seven mills*. In case a greater tax for school-house purposes may be necessary, they are authorized to call a special meeting of the qualified voters of the district to decide the question. When such greater tax has been voted, they are authorized to anticipate the same by borrowing money and issuing notes or bonds therefor, bearing interest not exceeding *eight* per cent. See law passed March 13, 1868, found below.

Up to this date (March 22) no bill changing the rates of school taxation, has been introduced into either branch of the General Assembly, and it is not likely that any change will be made this session. Boards of education will be safe in making their estimates in accordance with the provisions of the laws now in force.

AMENDMENTS TO THE SCHOOL LAW.

The General Assembly has passed two laws supplementary or amendatory to the general school law, and both of these relate to separate school districts. We give them below, accurately copied from the files in the office of the Secretary of State:

AN ACT

Supplementary to an act entitled "an act supplementary to an act passed March 14, 1853, entitled an act to provide for the reorganization of common schools," passed April 9th, 1867.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio*, That the board of education, elected under the provisions of the act to which this is supplementary, shall, before entering upon the duties of their office, organize, by electing from their own number a chairman, a clerk or recorder, and a treasurer, for such separate district; and the person so elected treasurer, shall, before entering upon the discharge of the duties of his office, execute a bond, payable to the state of Ohio, for an amount at least double the estimated amount of money that will be in his hands at any time, with two or more sureties, being freeholders in the county, to be approved by the chairman and clerk, and deposited with the clerk; and it shall be the duty of the clerk of such separate school district to immediately file with the county auditor a certified copy of such bond, from and after which the county auditor shall recognize and treat said district as a separate school district.

SEC. 2. That the board of education of every such separate school district heretofore organized under the provisions of the act to which this is supplementary, in all cases where the same has not been done, shall immediately proceed to elect from their own number, a chairman, clerk or recorder, and treasurer, as herein provided; and the treasurer of every such board of education, if he has not already given a bond as herein provided, shall at once execute the same, and the clerk shall certify and file a copy thereof with the county auditor as aforesaid; and the county auditor shall not hereafter recognize any such separate school district as legally organized until a copy of such bond is duly deposited.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

JOHN F. FOLLETT,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
J. C. LEE,
President of the Senate.

Passed January 30, 1868.

AN ACT

Supplementary to an act passed March 18, 1868, entitled "An act to amend and supplementary to an act entitled an act to provide for the organization, supervision, and maintenance of Common Schools," passed March 14, 1853, and the acts amendatory thereto; also, supplementary to an act for the support and better regulation of common schools in the town of Akron, passed February 8, 1847, and the acts amendatory thereto; also, supplementary to an act for the better regulation of the public schools in cities, towns, etc., passed February 21, 1849, and the acts amendatory thereto (vol. 61, O. L., 31), and to repeal an act so entitled, passed March 8, 1865. (Vol. 62, O. L., 39.)

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio,* That whenever the board of education of any city, incorporated town or village, or separate or special school district, shall determine that it is necessary for the proper accommodation of the schools of such city, town, or village, or separate or special school district, to purchase a site and erect a school house thereon, or to do either, and such board shall be of opinion that the purchase of such site and the erection of such house, or either of said purposes, will require a greater tax upon the property of such city, town, or village, or separate or special school district, than such board is now authorized by law to levy, and that to provide the means therefor it will be necessary to issue bonds, such board shall make an estimate of the probable cost of such site and house, or of either, and call a special meeting of the qualified voters of the district over which such board has jurisdiction in the manner now provided by law, and submit to said voters at such meeting, the question of levying taxes for said purposes, or either of them, and the further questions whether the levy for such purpose shall be made from year to year thereafter, and what amount shall be levied each year until the actual cost of such site and the erection of said house, or of either, shall be raised; and if a majority of the qualified voters at such election shall vote in favor of levying taxes for said purposes, or either of them, of continuing the levy from year to year thereafter, and the amount to be levied each year for the purpose or purposes aforesaid, said board of education shall certify the same, annually, to the county auditor of the proper county, who shall place the same upon the tax duplicate in the same manner that other taxes certified by such board of education are required to be placed on such tax duplicate; and to enable such board of education to anticipate the moneys to be raised by such taxation and to purchase such site and erect such school house, or to do either, they are hereby authorized to borrow the sum of money necessary for such purposes, or of either, and to issue bonds therefor, payable at the pleasure of said board after a certain day to be named therein, bearing interest, payable semi-annually, at a rate not exceeding eight per centum per annum.

SEC. 2. In all cities and incorporated towns and villages in which the board of education has heretofore submitted to the qualified voters thereof the questions specified in section one of the act repealed by section four of this act, and a majority of such qualified voters have voted in favor thereof as is therein provided for, such board of education shall have power to continue the levy so authorized from year to year until the actual cost of such school house is raised, and to issue bonds, as is provided for in this act, and all the other provisions of this act shall extend and apply to such cities and incorporated towns and villages.

SEC. 3. That the bonds issued by such board under this act, shall be in such sums as the board may determine, be numbered consecutively, made payable to the bearer, bear date the day of the sale thereof, and be signed by such board officially, and the clerk of the board shall keep a record of the number, date, amount, and rate of interest of each bond sold, and the name of the person to whom sold, and the time when payable, which record shall, at all reasonable times, be open to the inspection of the public. The bonds so issued, shall in no case be sold for a less sum than their par value.

SEC. 4. That the act entitled "an act supplementary to an act passed March 18, 1864, entitled an act to amend and supplementary to an act entitled an act to provide for the organization, supervision, and maintenance of common schools, passed March 14, 1853, and the acts amendatory thereto; also, supplementary to an act for the support and better regulation of common schools in the town of Akron, passed February 8, 1847, and the acts amendatory thereto; also, supplementary to an act for the better regulation of the public schools in cities, towns, etc., passed February 21, 1849, and the acts amendatory," passed March 8, 1865, be and the same is hereby repealed; provided, the acts done and contracts entered into by such board of education under the act hereby repealed, shall have the same validity and be carried into effect in the same manner as though this act had not been passed.

SEC. 5. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

JOHN F. FOLLETT,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
T. J. GODFREY,
President (pro tem.) of the Senate.

Passed March 13, 1868.

SCHOOL RULES AND REGULATIONS.

Section XIII of the school law makes it the "duty" of boards of education "to prescribe rules and regulations for the government of all the common schools within their jurisdiction"—a duty which has been wisely discharged by many boards and unwisely neglected by others. In some cases this neglect is due to the difficulty of framing suitable rules—a task requiring considerable experience in school affairs. With a view of lessening this difficulty, the School Commissioner in 1865 submitted to boards of education the series of rules found in the volume of School Laws, p. 21. The sets of rules sent us from different parts of the State, show that the series thus officially recommended, has served a very useful purpose.

To assist boards still further in the discharge of this important duty, we publish below a few additional rules selected from three of the several sets before us. The rules from which we select are those adopted respectively by the boards of education of Miami township, Montgomery county; Middleburg township, Cuyahoga county; and Rush township, Scioto county:

ACTING MANAGER.

1. He shall visit all the schools in the township, at least once in each term, accompanied by one or more of the local directors.—*Miami Tp.*
2. He shall carefully note the modes of government and instruction of each teacher, ascertaining the wants and deficiencies of the schools, and give such council and directions as may tend to promote the true interests of the cause of education.—*Miami Tp.*
3. He shall see that the rules and regulations of the schools are uniformly

carried out in all the departments; carefully note the condition of the houses and other school property, and the accommodations afforded to the pupils, and report the same to the township board at the annual meeting on the third Monday of April of each year.—*Miami Tp.*

4. He shall have the authority to call a teachers' meeting as often, and at such time and place within the township, as he may deem expedient and proper.—*Miami Tp.*

TEACHERS.

1. All the teachers are required to open their schools at the precise time appointed, and they shall not dismiss for a day, nor for part of a day, nor earlier than the time designated, without the permission of the local directors.—*Miami Tp.*

2. It shall be the duty of teachers to preserve good order in their schools; to prevent all running and boisterous noise within the school-house; to protect as far as possible the school property from injury or defacement; keep their school-rooms neat and clean; to have fires made in cold weather, and the school-room warm and properly ventilated before school hours in the morning, and well ventilated during the day; to keep an accurate record of the daily attendance and absence of each pupil, and all other statistics required by law. —*Rush Tp.*

3. The teacher shall have the power to control the conduct of the scholars on any part of the premises connected with the school house, or in the immediate vicinity of the same, whether within the regular school hours, or before or after them, in so far as their conduct is prejudicial to the good order, or tends in any way injuriously to affect the interests of the school.—*Middleburg Tp.*

PUPILS.

1. Every scholar is required to attend school punctually and regularly; to conform to all the rules of the school; to obey the directions of the teacher; to observe good order and propriety of deportment; to be diligent in study, respectful to teacher, kind and obliging to school-mates; to refrain entirely from *profane* and improper language; and to be clean and neat in attire.—*Middleburg Tp.*

2. Any scholar who shall be guilty of injuring or defacing any school property, shall be required to pay in full for the damages, and in default of payment, the teacher shall report the case to the board of education, and the scholar thus reported shall not afterward be allowed to attend the school until payment of damages shall have been made, or the case otherwise adjusted.—*Middleburg Tp.*—rule abridged.

3. For open and flagrant insubordination, the pupil may be suspended at once by the teacher, who shall without delay report the case and cause in writing, to the parent or guardian of such pupil, and to the local directors of the sub-district for adjustment. The local directors shall have the power to expel a pupil until the next meeting of the board of education, or until the close of the current term. * * * —*Middleburg Tp.*

4. No scholars shall be allowed to retain their connection with the school, unless they are furnished with the books, utensils, and stationary in use in their classes; and every scholar must pursue all the studies, and only those, of the department or class to which be belongs, unless excused by the teacher.—*Miami Tp.*

Some of the rules sent us by boards relate to details of teaching and governing which should be left to the teacher. Rules adopted by boards should relate to the general management of schools, and should be brief and few in number. The series of rules adopted by Rush township prescribes the text-books to be used. This is an important matter, and should thus be regulated in every township in the State.

Editorial Department.

Our next number will contain Prof. Phelp's third article on "The Organization of Schools"; Mr. Henkle's third article on the "Possessive Case"; Mr. Watkins's second article on "The Class Room"; an article by Mr. Cowdery on "Different Methods of Map Drawing"; and an article by Prof. W. H. Young on "Drawing in Primary Education." These articles were all intended for insertion in this number, but reached us after our space was occupied.

SUPERVISION AND PROFESSIONAL PROGRESS.

The third of the unsolved problems in the management of graded schools, which we have been considering, may thus be stated: *How to subject a corps of teachers to thorough supervision and not reduce them to operatives.*

No one who has carefully watched the progress of our graded schools, has failed to notice in them a strong tendency to mechanism. This tendency is not always equally marked, but it exists wherever it is not wisely counteracted. Teachers fall into the habit of looking to their principal or superintendent for directions, and thus lose the spirit of inquiry and invention so essential to true teaching. Instead of seeking earnestly for truer methods, they are content to work according to the prescribed pattern and to reach the prescribed standard. They sink the true teacher in the operative, and go through their task as mechanically as factory girls.

The principal of a graded school once said to us: "It is idle to ask my teachers to read professional works. They look to me for their methods, and their ambition is to do their work precisely as I direct. Nor do they inquire whether my methods are correct or incorrect. It is enough that I prescribe them." We left the building satisfied that any system of supervision that quenches the spirit of professional inquiry, is fatal to school progress. Cloth may be woven, boots may be made, and wood and stone may be carved by a mere operative, but instruction needs an artist's hand to direct and an artist's spirit to vitalize it. Mechanism here will not answer. The teacher is the soul of his methods. Their informing power flows from him. The teacher, in other words, must be an artist and not a servile imitator.

But how can supervision be made a quickener of professional inquiry? How can it direct and test school instruction, and, at the same time, foster originality and invention? How can it secure thoroughness and system, and also leave the teacher free to teach according to his "conscience and power"? These are the practical questions which enter into the problem now under consideration.

Without assuming to be able to answer these questions satisfactorily, we submit that the superintendent must himself be thoroughly imbued with the spirit of professional inquiry and progress. He must be qualified not only to direct teachers in the mechanism of their duties, but, also, and preëminently, to instruct, inspire, and lead them in the work of professional improvement. This is the vital, essential condition. An educator who has trudged for years in the same ruts, is unfit, whatever may be his other qualifications, to take charge of a system of schools. We have seen too many corps of teachers encumbered with a dead weight of old fogyism, to have a doubt on this point. What teachers need is the vivifying influence and example of an earnest, progressive superintendent.

But this is not enough. School supervision must *secure* professional progress in teachers by direct efforts and agencies. Every teacher must be made to feel that he stands in the position of an artist; that he must earnestly seek for truer principles and better methods. His work must be scrutinized in principle, method, and result, and every trace of originality and improvement should be commended. In other words, the superintendent must make the professional training of the teachers under him an important duty. He must call to his assistance the teachers' meeting and the teachers' institute, and these must be made to unfold the *principles* as well as the art of teaching—the *why* as well as the *how*.

Moreover, this training must be made broader than the teacher's work. The primary teacher must bring to her aid a knowledge of instruction in the higher grades, and the high school teacher needs a clear insight into the principles of primary instruction. An acquaintance with the methods of teaching employed in other schools and cities, is also exceedingly valuable. The experience of a single teacher, or of a single corps of teachers, is too narrow a basis for safe deductions respecting the value of tuitional methods. The wider the experience, the safer the deduction. And this leads us to the remark, that teachers should be interested in the reading of educational works and periodicals. This, it is true, will be the natural result of live professional training, but we would urge such professional reading as a *means* of such training. In every department of human investigation books are a necessity. They are the record of the thoughts and experience of others, and as such they enable the investigator to broaden his observations and correct his blunders. This is preëminently true in education. No educator can keep abreast with the progress of his profession, who does not read current educational literature. Professional works should be made an important element in the teachers' institute. Articles in these works should be assigned for study, and should be made a basis for discussions. Such a course never fails to interest teachers in professional reading.

Our final suggestion is that professional training should be backed up by *professional examinations*. A teacher's examination should test his knowledge of his business—should reach the principles and methods of his art. When the teachers in our schools understand that their professional acquirements are to be subjected to scrutiny, we shall witness a spirit of inquiry among them that will give full scope to originality and invention, and change tread-mill routine to fruitful progress.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL STUDIES.

We recently devoted several pages to a review of Mr. Harrington's vigorous essay on "Our Grammar Schools." We did this not simply because we were interested in the discussion, but because we believed that the time had come for a thorough examination of grammar school instruction and the adoption of a better course of study and better methods of teaching and testing. We find that we are not alone in this opinion. Throughout the country there seems to be a general taking hold of the subject with a view of instituting a reform.

We offer, therefore, no apology for recurring to the question so soon, and especially as we are over-tempted by an exceedingly interesting discussion of one phase of it, which we find in the recent semi-annual report of Supt. Philbrick, of Boston. Above forty pages of this report are devoted to a considereration of the course of study in the grammar schools, and this discussion is introduced by a frank acknowledgment that the task of framing a first-rate programme or study-plan is very difficult; and that, until recently, the proper antecedents have been wanting. The wide discussion of this great problem of education, *the true course of study*, which has been carried on for ten years in this country and Europe, has at last supplied the necessary data.

The defects in the Boston programme are held to be: 1. The absence of proper limitations—the course being indicated by *text-books* instead of by the *subjects* to be mastered. 2. A want of due order in the arrangement of the studies, both with reference to each other and with reference to the several classes. The first of these defects is aggravated by the prevailing method of examining classes, which tempts the teacher to a thorough *memoriter* drill in the text-book with a view of mastering all it contains, whether important or unimportant.

The remedy suggested is three-fold, to wit, (1) the designating of the studies by subjects; (2) the assigning of the relative order in which the several subjects and topics are to be studied; and (3) the adoption of a definite standard of attainments in each. In applying this remedy several guiding principles are to be observed. The amount of work to be done must be graduated to the *average* capacity of teachers and pupils. Undue prominence must not be given to one branch at the expense of others. The progressive development of the mental faculties must be regarded. Every requirement of doubtful utility must be excluded. The specifications must avoid such details as tend *to embarrass the energy and inventive genius of teachers.*

With these principles in view, Mr. Philbrick proceeds to the consideration of the several studies to determine the extent and order of their perusal. The grammar school period (in Boston, from six to seven years) he divides into six steps or grades, and allows a promotion to and a re-classification of the lower grades at the end of *each half year*. Formal drills in spelling should be limited to the spelling book, and should be made prominent in the lower grades. In the upper grades they should give place to the practical use of spelling in composition, dictation exercises, and written abstracts of lessons.

Writing should be taught with the view of imparting to pupils early the ability to write a neat, legible, and rapid hand. Regular drills in copy-books should end at the close of the fourth step, and, in the two upper grades, should be succeeded by practical writing in dictation exercises, compositions, book-keeping, etc.

The course of instruction in reading, arithmetic, grammar, and geography is carefully sketched, and a considerable reduction in the time now devoted to each is shown to be both practicable and desirable This reduction is most marked in arithmetic. Three or four years is deemed sufficient to give pupils a fair practical knowledge of the essential operations. "As for mental arithmetic, but little time should be devoted to it, and it should always be taught *in connection* with written arithmetic."

The time thus saved is to be devoted to the "accomplishment of writing good English," to book-keeping, natural philosophy, physiology, physical geography, history, and other branches of useful knowledge. What is urged is not a diminution in the number of studies taught, but a wiser selection of *what* is to be taught in each branch, and the *time* and *order* of such instruction.

While we do not indorse all the positions taken by Mr. Philbrick, we thank him most heartily for grappling with this subject. His discussion is, on the whole, in the right direction, and we commend it to the educators of the country.

MISCELLANY.

The largest lists of subscribers received by us in the months of December, January and February, were sent by Mr. Converse, of Cleveland, (list sent from Toledo,) and Mr. Henkle, of Salem. They each sent 35 subscribers. Mr. Miller, of Findlay, sent us 31, and Mr. Finch, of Kenton, 26. Many others sent clubs of 6 to 20.

We call special attention to the new course of instruction in English Grammar, recently adopted by the Cincinnati School Board for the District Schools—a grade corresponding to the sub-grammar schools of other cities. It may be found in another place. We have requested Supt. Hancock to favor our readers with a sketch of the entire course of elementary instruction in language, as now pursued in the Cincinnati schools. We hope to publish the article next month.

The Senate did a good thing when it defeated the bill reducing the number of inhabitants necessary to form a separate school district. We are glad to see in that body a feeling against this sort of school tinkering. Amendments to the school law should be made with great care, and, if possible, in a single bill. The school system is administered by too many officers to be changed by piecemeal.——A bill creating the office of county school superintendent has been introduced in the Senate, but the retrenchment spirit is too strong to justify any expectation that it will pass.

Whipping Schools.—Mr. Jewett, of Zanesville, has introduced in the House a bill providing for the establishment of separate schools for such children as may need "a more stringent discipline" than is requisite to restrain ordinary pupils. In such separate schools "corporeal" punishment, to a reasonable extent, is authorized, provided the parent or guardian does not object. If objection is made, and the pupil can not be controlled by other and ordinary means, the board of education may expel

such pupil for the current school year. In all other schools the infliction of "corporeal" punishment is to be dispensed with. We have not heard of the bill since its introduction, and it is to be hoped that the School Committee has buried it. It is impracticable nonsense.

Public Libraries.—A law was passed on the 24th of February, authorizing the city council of any city of the second class, to levy annually a tax not exceeding one-half a mill on the dollar, to support a free public library and reading room. The condition stipulated is, that a suitable lot and building must first be secured by donation. The law is a good one, and we hope the condition will be met in many of our cities.

The National Associations.—The Legislature of Tennessee has invited the National Teachers' Association to hold its next annual meeting at Nashville, and has tendered the use of the Senate and Assembly chambers for the purpose. In view of the hopeful aspect of public education in Tennessee, and the South generally, it has been decided to accept the invitation. The time of the meeting is not yet definitely fixed, but it will probably be about the middle of August. The precise time and the programme will soon be announced. The National Superintendents' Association and the National Normal Association will meet at the same place. Our exchanges are requested to copy this notice, and thus help on the good work.

Teachers' Institutes.—Institutes to continue one week, are announced to be held at Norwalk and Warren, beginning March 30th, and at Toledo beginning April 5th. We hope there may be a large attendance, and that the Monthly may not be forgotten.——The monthly meetings of the Hamilton County Teachers' Association are increasing in interest, and township institutes are forming. The institute in Sycamore township had a spirited session in February, and another on the 21st of March. We were sorry to be obliged to decline an invitation to be present.

Troy.—The public schools of this city, which were for many years under the supervision of the lamented Edwards, are now in charge of Prof. H. A. Thompson, late of Otterbein University. They are known to be among the best graded schools in the country, and any information respecting their management will doubtless interest our readers. We select two items—*government* and *promotion*.

In all the rooms below the High School each pupil who has been perfect in lessons and conduct during the day, receives a small card with the word "superior" printed on it. When he has received twenty "superiors" he takes them to the superintendent and receives a beautifully printed "certificate" the possession of which is regarded as a great honor. To this plan, adopted by Mr. Edwards, Mr. Thompson has added the further incentive of publishing the names of pupils who receive superiors every day in the week. This term he has offered a medal (prepared by Schermerhorn & Co., N. Y.) to the pupils in each room who receive the highest number of superiors. These additional incentives have nearly doubled the number of superiors given each week.

Classes are examined when the allotted portions in any branch of study are completed. This distributes the examinations through the year. Above the primary grade the examinations, in most of the branches, are conducted by writing. Two-thirds of the questions asked are required to be correctly answered. At the close of the year the pupils who have reached this standard in all the branches, receive a "certificate" of promotion to the next higher class or grade. Those who have fallen below the standard in not more than two branches are also promoted, but without the honor of a certificate. Those who fall below the standard in more than two branches, are not promoted. Pupils who are absent from an examination of their class, except for sickness, are subsequently examined. In the High School pupils who fail in an examination are required to review and be re-examined, otherwise no diploma is granted.

We can only add that the board of education, superintendent, and teachers are all working together harmoniously, and the schools are making good progress.

PORTSMOUTH.—The new building for the accommodation of the two upper departments of the public schools, has been occupied since the first of January. It is finely fitted up and finished, and is spoken of by the citizens with pride and satisfaction. The cost of the property, as it now stands, is about $30,000. We take great pleasure in recording this improvement for its influence on the schools can but prove highly beneficial. It is what we have long held to be essential to their highest success. All our cities and towns need first-class high schools, located in attractive and commodious buildings. Portsmouth has wealth, enterprise, and public spirit, and there is no reason why its public schools should not be among the very best in the country. We are glad to know that they are making decided progress. Mr. Bolton, the superintendent, has been connected with them for many years, and is earnestly devoted to their improvement.

DAYTON.—For upwards of a year and a half the public schools of this city have been under the general supervision of Mr. Caleb Parker, a member of the Board of Education, who, from a simple desire to do good, has devoted his time gratuitously to the work. His first annual report is on our table, and we have perused it with great satisfaction. It is an excellent document. We are specially pleased with the fact that it recognizes so fully the essential condition of school progress, viz: the professional improvement of teachers. It also deals with the practical questions of school instruction with great clearness, showing a grasp of vital principles as well as a familiarity with details. We are glad to learn that Mr. Parker is to continue in his "labor of love" for the schools are evidently making good progress.

CINCINNATI CLUBS.—Mr. Prichard, of the 18th District, sends us 17 subscribers; Mr. Reynolds, 2d District, 14; Mr. Peale, 8th District, 13; Mr. Carnahan, 1st Int., 11; Mr. Sands, 14th District, 7; and Mr. Curran, Kuhn & Curran's Academy, 9. These added to former clubs acknowledged give us at this date 150 subscribers in the city.

P. T. COOK has taken charge of the schools of Bethel, O., in place of Mr. Hopkins, who has gone to East Walnut Hills.

OTHER STATES AND COUNTRIES.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A copy of Supt. Wickersham's annual report, neatly bound in cloth, is on our table. It is just such a document as only an able and experienced educator is capable of writing. It goes straight to the root of school questions, and the progress made by the schools and the improvements needed are presented very concisely and clearly. Among the improvements recommended are larger State appropriations, longer school terms (the law now requires but four months), township supervision as supplementary to county supervision, an increased number of normal schools, and the union of all educational institutions in the State. The supplementary school law, passed last year, is working efficiently. The whole number of schools in the State is 13,435; number of teachers, 16,523; number of pupils enrolled, 789,389; average attendance, 480,870; total cost of tuition, $3,028,066; total school expenditure, $5,160,750; average length of school terms (not including Philadelphia), 5 mos. 17 days. The State paid $56,020 for county school supervision; $8,500 for the School Department; $10,000 to normal schools; and $1,875 to the *School Journal.*

NEW YORK.—The *American Educational Monthly*, published in New York, devotes four pages of its February number to "the more striking features" of a teachers' institute recently held near that city. Two of the three Commissioners who had charge of the institute and who took turn in presiding, were drunk, and when off from duty were at the neighboring horse-race or bar-room. Book-agents "swarmed" and were the real workers. "The ladies were all entertained at one low rum-shop and the Commissioners and gentlemen at another." Exercises were introduced which "would have disgraced a bar-room." An ex-member of a minstrel troup sang songs "that made decent women hide their faces." The institute closed with a *ball* "in a somewhat disreputable dance-house." But we forbear further reference to these shocking details. We have heard of institutes that were disgraced by the conduct of some low, drunken interloper, but this affair is almost incredible.——A normal school is to be organized at Buffalo. Joseph Ketchum has donated a suitable lot; the Board of Supervisors has voted $45,000 for the erection of the building; and the Legislature has made an annual appropriation of $12,000 for the support of the school.

MAINE.—The report of the State Superintendent of Common Schools, Dr. Edward Ballard, devotes over ten pages to the subject of normal schools and some six pages to teachers' meetings, institutes, and associations. Maine has earnestly entered on the important work of providing normal instruction as a means of supplying her schools with competent teachers. Two State Normal Schools are now in operation. The school at Farmington, opened in 1864, has been a great success. The one at Castine was opened last September. An excellent feature of the report is the attention given to topics which relate practically to school instruction and management. We infer from the summary of school statistics given, that the number of children in the State is diminishing—the decrease last year being over 500. The whole number of children between four and twenty-one years of age, is 212,309; the number enrolled in the schools, 131,644; and the average attendance, 92,827. The amount expended for school purposes was $936,131.75.——The *Normal*, a monthly journal edited by George M. Gage, Principal of the Farmington Normal School, has not been received by us for some months past.

RHODE ISLAND.—The annual report of the State School Commissioner, Hon. J. B. Chapin, is largely devoted to a consideration of the causes that hinder educational advancement, of which we have only space to notice the last, viz: a want of competent teachers. This hindrance is discussed ably and at considerable length. The remedy proposed is normal training. "It is this [agency] which gives life, strength, and efficiency to all the rest." The value of normal schools is strongly presented, and the Commissioner's views are backed up by the uniform testimony of eminent educators. Rhode Island is too small to make much of a show in school statistics. It sustained last year 515 schools, with 661 teachers. The average attendance of pupils in the winter was 23,720; in summer, 19,972. The State appropriated $300 for the support of the *R. I. Schoolmaster*, which has now reached its fourteenth volume. It looks as though it was good for a century.

VIRGINIA.—The American Missionary Association has established a normal school for colored teachers at Hampton. A farm of 150 acres, known during the war as Camp Hamilton, has been purchased, and the necessary buildings erected. The female department is in charge of Miss Elizabeth Breck, of Northampton, Mass.

BOOK NOTICES.

Elementary Arithmetic, for the Slate; in which Methods and Rules are based upon Principles established by Induction. By **John H. French**, LL.D. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1867.

This is the second book in the author's new series of arithmetics. It is designed for young learners, and, as we suppose, is to be used before the mental arithmetic, now in press. It presents simply the elements of written arithmetic as a foundation for the subsequent study of the subject as a science. Each section is introduced by operations on small numbers, and the formal rule is deduced from and familiarized through the process. This is a characteristic and valuable feature of the work. Its motto is, "If Principles are understood, Rules are useless." Oral exercises are also made introductory to each of the four fundamental processes, and these are relied on, rather than numerous slate exercises, to make the pupil rapid and accurate in his computations. Nearly all the examples given are concrete problems, largely representing business transactions.

The work is divided into six chapters treating respectively of Integers, Decimals, Compound Numbers, Fractions, Percentage, and Miscellaneous Review Problems. The author claims that this is the natural order. He also claims that long division is simpler than short division, and that in placing the former before the latter, he has also followed the natural order of mental development, *perception before memory*. But we have not space to notice the many new features of this work, and must be content to commend it to all progressive teachers as worthy of their careful examination.

The Analysis of Intellectual Arithmetic, with Mental and Blackboard Exercises. Designed for Public and Private Schools. By **S. A. Felter**, M.A., Author of a Series of School Arithmetics. New York: Charles Scribner & Co. 1868.

This book is something of a novelty. Its aim seems to be to train pupils to handle large numbers mentally, and this is done by making slate and blackboard exercises introductory to mental exercises—the reverse of the usual process. The pupil begins by adding such numbers as 90 and 30, 97 and 30, 97 and 38, 828 and 467, etc., and numbers of like size are used in subtraction, multiplication, and division, and also in the problems given for analysis. We also observe that there are not only set formulas given for the analysis of problems, but that the several subjects are introduced, as in written arithmetic, by definitions, and that rules are given for mental processes—a marked departure from the inductive method. Indeed, the work seems to be an application of the processes and principles of written arithmetic to mental arithmetic, as if to show, what the author claims in his preface, that they are "one and the same thing in fact and expression." Why, then, have separate treatises? Turning to page 89 we learn that the preceding pages—including the ground rules and reduction—are to be studied in connection with the author's excellent works on written arithmetic. This suggests that the book is designed as an auxiliary, and not as an independent treatise. The more we see the book from this stand point, the better we like it.

An Intellectual Arithmetic, upon the Inductive Method, with an Introduction to Written Arithmetic. By **James S. Eaton**, M.A., Author of a Series of Arithmetics. Boston: Taggard & Thompson. 1868.

This work is unquestionably one of the best of its class now before the public. Like Colburn's First Lessons it is based on the inductive method, and a very close adherence to its principles is observable throughout. This is, indeed, the characteristic feature of the book. The subjects are arranged in their natural and logical order, and each is so treated as to form a complete preparation for that which follows. A free use is made of concrete numbers as a preparation for the more difficult exercises on abstract numbers, and, in further obedience to the spirit of the inductive method, the pupil is not supplied with set forms of analysis for the various classes of problems. A few suggestive solutions are given, but the pupil is largely and properly left to his own resources. The few written exercises, appended to the volume, tempt us to ask why they are not scattered throughout the work. Why divorce mental and written arithmetic?

A MANUAL OF INORGANIC CHEMISTRY. Arranged to Facilitate the Experimental Demonstration of the Facts and Principles of the Science. By CHARLES W. ELIOT and FRANK H. STORER, Professors in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Second Edition, Revised. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1868. 12mo, pp. xx. 605, and Appendix xlii, with Index.

A first rate book. It employs the new notation; adopts the new theories; and follows the inductive method of presenting the subject. It is, of course, open to the criticism that the new notions are by no means established, but its value is not dependent on mere theoretical expression. The facts of the science are given in clear, concise statements, and in sufficient quantity to merit the title of the book.

Nevertheless, it is altogether too large for High Schools and Colleges, and is adapted, considered as a text-book, only for special students in chemistry. Six hundred pages of inorganic chemistry, with organic to follow, is too great a task to be attempted by an ordinary student.

The appendix contains practical, common-sense directions for making and fitting up apparatus.

A smaller manual, containing less of the science (*i. e.*, theory) and nearly as much of the art (*i. e.*, facts that may be applied), would be an immense gain to the teacher of chemistry. Books, professedly inductive, are prone to develop theory by the exhibition of few facts; so that the student learns little of the art in question. This book is a marked contrast, in this regard, to certain others which profess to follow it in another department. No teacher of chemistry can do without this, or some other of the recent English publications, as Galloway, Hoffman, Roscoe. This is as good as the best of the smaller books. S. A. N.

CHASE & STUART'S CLASSICAL SERIES. I. CÆSAR, De Bello Gallico, with Notes and Lexicon. By GEO. STUART, A.M., Prof. of Latin in Central High Schools, Philadelphia. II. VIRGIL'S ÆNEID, with Notes. By TH. CHASE, A.M., Haverford College. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1868.

I do not know any editions of Cæsar or Virgil which I should prefer to these, for cheapness, portable size, and *completeness of execution* in all respects. The notes give *all* the help needed and *no more* (a very essential, but often neglected requisite). They are free from that superfluous show of erudition which is fitter to weary and repel than to stimulate. The little scraps of collateral information which they unostentatiously afford, are well calculated to keep alive the appreciative interest of the student. The mythological, historical, geographical, and metrical appendices are very valuable, and much more likely to be referred to, by the class of readers for whom they are intended, than the pages of a voluminous classical dictionary, or the very erudite, but very unattractive, grammar of Andrews & Stoddard.

We are promised a Sallust and a Horace on the same excellent plan. I hope that the spirited publishers, who seem to have entered *con amore* on the work of popularizing the master pieces of Latin literature, will (in the absence of a good collection of Greek prose and verse, which I should greatly prefer) bestow on us, in course of time, a school edition of Homer, as acceptable for *thorough and unpretending scholarship*. T. H. S.

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THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS.

BY PROF. WM. F. PHELPS.

It may be well to suggest, before passing to the next step in the process of school organization, that written examinations are by far the most reliable and satisfactory tests of attainment, and that they should be employed in all cases where circumstances will permit. This method may be adopted partially or wholly among the older classes even of our ungraded country schools with much advantage. Written examinations for *classification* are no less valuable than for purposes of *promotion* or *graduation*; and we shall expect to see the standard of teaching and of scholarship advance in the common schools in the exact ratio of the thorough and judicious application of this vigorous test in these several directions.

VIII. *The standing of each pupil having been accurately determined, the teacher should decide upon the number and character of his grades, and then proceed to the work of permanent classification, acting upon the cardinal principle that the pupils should be grouped according to their average capacities and attainments and not to their proficiency in any one branch.*

In establishing the grades care should be taken not to make them too numerous, lest the number of classes become unduly multiplied, and the time and strength of the teacher be too greatly taxed. In most country schools these grades need not exceed three, or at most four, and under judicious management the former number can be made to prevail perhaps in a majority of cases. Of course, the studies of all the pupils in each grade will be the same. There should be no overlapping of one grade upon another. They should be kept distinct, so that a pupil, for example, in the A class in arithmetic will be in the same class in all the studies pursued by him. Or, in other words, the same pupil should not be placed in as many different classes as he has studies. If his attainments in grammar enable him to enter the C class, while his examination in geography would place him in the A, and in arithmetic in the B, let him be so classified that he can, for the time being, give less attention to geography and more to the studies in which he is deficient. One great object of education is to secure a well-balanced mind—to develop the faculties symmetrically and not in one or two directions merely. We should not encourage the pursuit of *hobbies*. A harmonious evolution of the faculties demands a harmonious arrangement of studies and a prosecution of them in a kindred spirit of harmony. The fulfillment of this law of culture is best secured by such a curriculum and classification as demand a judicious distribution of the mental energies through all the leading lines of thought open to the human intellect.

We lay it down as a maxim, then, that the classification of a school should be *general;* that each class should be distinct from every other; and that an ungraded school in this respect should be made to approximate as nearly as possible to one which is graded.

That it will take time, tact, and skill to effect such a classification, is very true. That many difficulties will have to be surmounted and many prejudices overcome, is equally unquestionable. But there is no excellence any where without labor, and these difficulties will be much less than those which result from the common method of distributing the pupils among several classes. Our common schools can never be rescued from their low estate without skill, tact, and patient effort. They can not be made efficient instrumentalities for good, until there is a radical change for the better in their internal organization and classification.

While there are nearly as many classes as there are pupils multiplied by the number of studies in a school, no results that are really tangible can be achieved, and the means, time, and labor expended upon it are mainly wasted. No teacher should be burdened with more than fifty pupils, and these should be susceptible of division into not exceeding three classes, while two would be better still.

The efficiency and economy of teaching hinge primarily upon a judicious classification according to the principle of homogeniety in capacity and attainments of the pupils of each class or grade.

Most, if not all, of the objections which may be made to this plan, may be overcome by a skillful and intelligent teacher. If there seems at first to be too great a diversity of gifts and attainments, either in the same pupil or between the different pupils of a class, let the tact of the teacher be called into requisition to harmonize these diversities and to restore the mental equilibrium, while holding fast to the faith that his sound system of classification will itself in due time do much toward working out the desired results.

Undoubtedly both mental and physical *capacity* as well as mere attainments, should have a bearing upon the classification of children at school. A child's power of physical endurance may be weak, while intellectually he may be equal to the average of his class. In such a case, it would be better to grade him low, rather than by overtaxing his energies to endanger health and perhaps his life. Great prudence and care are necessary in this work of classification, and the teacher will find it expedient to look at the *possibilities* as well as the *actualities* of each case, in order to reach a wise conclusion in the premises.

IX. *The classification of the school having been satisfactorily effected, it devolves upon the teacher to determine the order and distribution of studies and other exercises best suited to the condition and circumstances of his pupils.*

This subject of the order and distribution of studies, is still in a very loose and disjointed state in most of our country schools. In this respect, also, many of them are in a truly deplorable condition. It frequently happens not only that each child is allowed to select his own studies, but that he generally chooses those for which he is least fitted. Or if the parents, as they often do, claim the right to dictate in this matter, the result is no less disastrous in its consequences upon the condition of the school. Indeed, it is this license in the selection of studies, leading to an almost endless diversity, that renders the proper classification of our schools next to impossible. Here is a child scarcely able to read a primer fluently, that insists upon using a third or fourth reader. Here is another, ignorant of the first principles of arithmetic, that proposes to study algebra. A third demands to be organized into a Latin class; and a fourth claims the time and attention of the teacher as one whole class in chemistry or physics. One parent wants his children to study "*rethmetie*" only, deeming "*jography*" of no account. It is a notorious fact that hundreds of schools in our country are thus suffering from a confusion of tongues, as destructive to their harmonious and efficient action as was that which confounded the workers at the tower of Babel. The laws of few States define, as distinctly as they should do, the studies which it is the office of the common schools to carry forward. Indeed, this whole question of a course of study for the public schools, seems to be *all at sea.* It seems to be at the mercy of the varying views alike of children, parents, and teachers, and between them all our system in many places is driven well nigh awreck.

In the absence of any well defined plan, therefore, in respect to this matter, we believe it devolves upon the teacher to determine, after a careful examination of his pupils, what studies are best suited to their condition and circumstances. Education is not a mere system of outward and arbitrary appliances. It is rather a series of processes adapted to favor the growth and development of the faculties. The studies and exercises in which a child should engage, then, depend upon his mental and moral condition as determined by the examination heretofore referred to. The teacher is bound to comprehend what this condition is, and what is best suited to it. Therefore, let him rule out all special branches, and those with high sounding names, whenever they are above the capacity of those who claim them, and whenever they are in danger of unduly absorbing his attention or of interfering with the legitimate work of the school as well as with the rights of a large majority of those for whose equal benefit the institution is established and supported. This is not the place to go into a discussion of the subject of a course of study, however profitable such might be. But keeping in view the great end for which the public school was established, it is safe to affirm that the *elementary branches* and those *fundamental processes* whose function it is to develop and shape the mind, must claim precedence over those which can be profitably pursued only upon the basis of a thorough and exact knowledge of first principles.

X. *Following the permanent classification and the selection of studies, a suitable time-table or daily programme of exercises should be arranged adapted to the circumstances of the school.*

Without a time for everything, and everything in its time, little can be accomplished in the management of a school. "Order is Heaven's first law." Without system in our mental processes, the mind remains in that chaotic state which renders it powerless for good. Without system in the means by which these mental processes are to be regulated and governed, it is easy to see that intellectual discipline and power can not be attained. Hence a school should ever embody the soul of order in all things.

In constructing a time-table, the teacher will need to have before him all the subjects of study, all the classes he has formed, the general exercises he proposes to introduce, and the number of hours to be devoted to the daily session. In addition to these, he must be prepared to make suitable allowance for recesses and other interruptions of the regular school work. A simple method of procedure would be, first, to reduce the time of the daily session to minutes, and having decided upon the number and length of the recesses and other interruptions, to deduct the time thus to be occupied from that of the whole session. Next let the number of class exercises be ascertained, and let the number of minutes to be devoted to class work be divided by the number of exercises. The quotient will give the average length of each recitation. This would give an approximation to the true time-table for each day. But the average duration of the recitations will be modified by the following considerations:

1. Classes belonging to the lower grades will require less time and more frequent repetition than those more advanced.

2. Classes in such studies as grammar and geography should be allowed more time than those in reading, written and mental arithmetic, etc.

3. The lessons of the primary classes in reading and spelling, if possible, should be duplicated during the two daily sessions.

4. Some of the recitations of the more advanced classes may alternate with each other when necessary; as, for example, the mental arithmetic class may be heard twice a week, and the written three times. This plan should be resorted to only when there is insufficient time for daily, thorough drills with all the classes. Two or three exercises a week of thirty-five minutes duration will be much more valuable than five recitations of no more than twenty minutes each in the more advanced classes. In the German schools it is customary to distribute the different school exercises through the hours of the week, instead of the

day, as in this country. This plan has many advantages, besides being founded in sound philosophy.

To the foregoing suggestions many others might be added upon the arrangement of a time-table, but space will not permit. We must be allowed to urge, however, the importance of a careful and systematic apportionment of time among the various duties of the school-room as the only means whereby exact justice can be meted out to all concerned.

NOTES ON TEACHING NATURAL SCIENCE.

NO. III. SPECIFIC GRAVITY. (*Concluded.*)

The principle of Archimedes as applied to floating bodies can be shown, by experiments corresponding to those already detailed, to have two forms of expression, viz:

1. A body always displaces its own weight of the fluid in which it floats. Hence,

2. A floating body displaces a volume of fluid inversely proportioned to the density of the fluid.

It follows from the latter statement, that the specific gravity of a liquid may be found by dividing the volume of a given weight of water by the volume of an equal weight of the liquid. In this, the *volume* of water is the *dividend*; in the previous examples, the *weight* of the water is the *divisor*.

In the application of the preceding, we have two forms of hydrometers: (1) of constant volume: (2) of constant weight.

1. Hydrometers of constant volume, like that of Nicholson, have the instrument always sunk to the same level (a mark on the stem) by means of weights added to a pan out of the liquid.

Such an hydrometer can be extemporized by taking a short cylinder of wood rounded at each end, ballasting it by means of a wire basket attached to the lower end, and affixing, by a stout straight wire, a small pan at the upper end. In every form of hydrometer, enough ballast should be used to bring the centre of gravity to such a point that the instrument will float in a vertical position. Nicholson's hydrometer may be used for finding the specific gravity of both solids and liquids.

As the same volume of fluid is displaced in each instance, then the weight of the instrument plus the weight added to bring it to the mark on the upper wire will equal the weight of the same volume of fluid. This consideration enables us to use this hydrometer to obtain the specific gravity of liquids in the same manner as with the specific gravity bulb.

(*N*) A counterpoise of known weight is required to bring the instrument placed in water to the stem mark. If any body be put on the pan in place of a portion of the counterpoise, the weight of the body in air must equal the weight of the counterpoise minus the weight of the portion remaining. So if the body be transferred to the basket, the weight necessary to be added to the pan will equal the loss of weight of the solid in water. Then the first quantity divided by the second will give the specific gravity of the body.

This instrument may be used for solids of all densities. When light solids are submerged, they must be in some way confined to the basket.

(*O*) Hydrometers of constant weight can be extemporized with very little trouble. Close one end of a quill glass tube of uniform diameter and twelve or fifteen inches long, and ballast it in water by dropping shot or mercury into the tube. Having adjusted the load so that it will float, leaving three or four inches out of water, seal the upper end. This is the original form of Gay Lussac's volumetre. To imitate the common forms, pass the tube through a large cork rounded at the ends, ballast as before, and adjust by raising or depressing the cork. The scale must now be determined by careful experiment, and marked on the tube by scratching the glass with a glazier's diamond or a fine file.

(*P*) Beaume's scale for heavy liquids is found as follows: Denote the volume of the hydrometer submerged in water by x. Mark the level on the stem, and call the point zero. Make a solution of 15 parts cooking salt and 85 parts water. Place the spindle in this, and denote the level of the instrument in the brine by the number 15. Now consider the instrument below the water line, to be divided into equal parts, corresponding to the fifteen parts between the water line and the brine line, and call the parts degrees. The volume of the instrument submerged in the brine is therefore $x - 15°$. Therefore if we divide x by $x - 15°$, we shall have the specific gravity of the brine. By other methods, brine of the strength assumed has been found to have a specific gravity of 1.109. Consequently $x \div (x - 15) = 1.109$. Hence, $x = 152°$. In other words, the volume of pure water displaced by the instrument is equal to 152 such parts as constitute the 15 between pure water and brine containing 15 per centum of salt. Therefore if the spindle rests in any other liquid at a degree represented by n, its specific gravity will be found by dividing the volume of water displaced (152) by the volume of the liquid ($152 - n$), or specific gravity of heavy liquids $= 152° \div (152° - n)$.

(Q) Now the most natural way for finding the specific gravity of liquids lighter than water would be to continue the same graduation above the water mark, and divide 152° by $152° + n$; but by some idiosyncrasy or other, Beaume was led to make an entirely new scale for lighter liquids on the following basis: He denoted by zero the specific gravity of a liquid containing 10 per centum of salt (this is actually 1.073), and represented the water line by 10°. From such data $x \div (x - 10) = 1.073 : x = 146$. Consequently, by Beaume's scale, specific gravity of lighter liquids $= 146 \div (136 + n)$. Beaume's scales are of very general use. in the United States, and are about as good as any, since almost all are alike arbitrary.

(R) Gay Lussac's hydrometer is numbered, in theory at least, from the bottom of the tube, and floats about midway at 100° in distilled water. Its formula is the simplest of all, being for all liquids $sp.\ gr. = 100 \div n$.

The formulas for other hydrometers are: $Sp.\ gr. =$ Beck (lighter) ,$170 \div (170 + n)$; (heavier), $170 \div (170 - n)$. Cartier (lighter), $134.6 \div (123.6 + n)$. Twaddell (heavier), $1 + .005n$.

Almost every important liquid used in commerce has a scale peculiar to itself: thus we have salinometers, acetometers, lactometers, saccharometers, alcohometers, "petroleometers", and others.

Richter's and Tralle's scales are employed in the determination of alcoholic liquors; the first indicates the proportion of absolute spirit by weight, and the second by volume. The latter is the one adopted by the United States in levying duties on spirits.

Some hydrometers are made in sets of two or more spindles, to avoid an undue length of stem. Others, as Sike's, are provided with moveable weights to facilitate adjustment in different fluids. All these are constructed on the same principles, and vary only in their scales and in the mode of adjustment. Little reliance can be placed on the accuracy of the results obtained by their means, by reason of the difficulty of reading the level of the liquid on the scale, and also by reason of the carelessness or dishonesty of the makers in adjusting the scales. A printed scale is not likely to fit all instruments equally well. Every instrument should be tested to ascertain how much reliance can be placed on its "rough and ready" indications.

Space will permit only the bare mention of other means of finding specific gravity; as, the *U* tube, the pump hydrometer, Rousseau's Hydrometer, or Fahrenheit's Hydrometer. Of these, Rousseau's is useful when only a very small quantity of the liquid is obtainable. The others are curious, but of little practical value.

Few persons have apparatus that will warrant them in attempting to calculate the specific gravity of gases. The fact that gases differ in this regard may be shown by pouring them up or down from one vessel to another, and more satisfactorily by soap bubbles prepared with glycerine and filled with various gases. An artificial atmosphere may be made for the heavier gases to float in by filling a deep jar with carbonic acid.

Solids that are soluble in water, as sugar, salt, are weighed in oils which do not dissolve them; the loss of weight noted; and then the necessary computations are made to reduce this loss to the usual standard.

The subject furnishes an admirable exercise in mathematics, and one valuable for sharpening the wits of the pupils. Data of weights should be made to furnish results in volume, and *vice versa*. The exercise should be made strictly progressive, and should be made to start from elementary problems of mensuration of solids. The most difficult problems are those of Chemistry requiring the volume of gaseous product, resulting from reactions of given weights of bodies taken in the solid state.

S. A. N.

TEACHERS OF ONE IDEA.

BY JOHN S. HART, LL.D.*

There is between the teacher and other operatives one obvious difference, arising from the difference in the materials upon which their labor is bestowed. That class of laborers whose toil and skill are exerted in modifying the forms of matter, succeed generally in proportion to the narrowness of the range to which each individual's attention is confined. It is possible for the same person to sow flax, to pull and rot it, to break it, hatchel it, spin it, warp it, weave it, dye or bleach it, and finally make it into clothes. I say this is possible, for I have seen it done, and I dare say many of my readers have seen the same. But how coarse and expensive is such a product, compared with that in which every step in the progress of production is made the subject of one individual's entire and undivided attention.

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If we were to go into the factories of Lowell, or into any of the thousand workshops which are converting Philadelphia into a great manufacturing centre, we would find the manufacture of an article approaching perfection just in proportion to the imperfection (in one sense) of the individual workmen employed in its production. The man who can make a pin-head better and cheaper than any one else, must give his attention to making pin-heads only. He need not know how to point a pin, or polish it, or cut the wire. On the contrary, his skill in that one operation increases ordinarily in proportion to his want of skill in others. His perfection as a workman is in the direct ratio to his imperfection as a man. He operates upon matter, and the more nearly he can bring his muscles and his volitions to the uniformity and the precision of a mere machine—the more confined, monotonous, and undeviating are his operations—the higher is the price set upon his work, the better is he fitted for his task.

Not so the instructor of youth. The material operated on here is of a nature too subtle to be shaped and fashioned by the undeviating routine of any such mechanical operations. The process necessary to sharpen one intellect may terrify and confound another. The means which in one instance serve to convince, serve in other cases to confuse. The illustration which to one is a ray of light, is to another only "darkness visible." Mind is not, like matter, fixed and uniform in its operations. The workman who is to operate upon a substance so subtle and so varying, must not be a man of one idea—who knows one thing, and nothing more. It is not true in mind, as in matter, that perfection in the knowledge of one particular point is gained by withdrawing the attention from every other point. All truth and all knowledge are affiliated. The knowledge of arithmetic is increased by that of algebra, the knowledge of geography by that of astronomy, the knowledge of one language by knowing another. As no one thing in nature exists unconnected with other things, so no one item in the vast sum of human knowledge is isolated, and no person is likely to be perfectly acquainted with any one subject who confines his attention with microscopic minuteness to that subject. To understand thoroughly one subject, you must study it not only in itself, but in its relations. To know one thing well, you must know very many other things.

Let us return, then, to the point from which we set out, namely, that one important difference between the teacher and other operatives arises from the difference in the objects on which they operate. The one operates upon matter, the other upon mind. The one attains perfection in his art by a process which in the other would produce an ignoramus, a bungler, a narrow-minded, conceited charlatan. Hence the necessity, on the part of those who would excel in the profession of teaching, of endeavoring continually to enlarge the bounds of their knowledge. Hence the error of those who think that to teach any thing well, it is necessary to know only that one thing. That young woman who undertakes to teach a primary, or even an infant class, has mistaken her calling, if she supposes that because she has to teach only the alphabet or the "table-card," she has therefore no need to know many other things. There are some things which every teacher needs. Every teacher needs acultivated taste, a disciplined intellect, and that enlargement of views which results only from enlarged knowledge.

We all know how much we are ourselves benefited by associating habitually with persons of superior abilities. So it is in a still higher degree with children. There is something contagious in the fire of intellect. The human mind, as well as the human heart, has a wonderful power of assimulation. Every judicious parent will say: Let not my child be consigned to the care of an ill-informed, dull, spiritless teacher. Let it be his happy lot, if possible, to be under one who has some higher ambition than merely to go through a certain prescribed routine of duties and lessons; one whose face beams with intelligence, and whose lips drop knowledge; one who can cultivate in him the disposition to inquire, by his own readiness and ability to answer childish questions; who can lead the inquiries of a child into proper channels, and train him to a correct mode of thinking by being himself familiar with the true logical process, by having himself a cultivated understanding. Such a teacher finds a pleasure in his task. He finds that he is not only teaching his pupils to read and to spell, to write and to cipher, but he is acquiring an ascendancy over them. He is exerting upon them a moral and intellectual power. He is leaving, upon a material far more precious than any coined in the mint, the deep and inerasable impress of his own character.

Let me repeat, then, at the risk of becoming tiresome, what I hold to be an important and elementary truth, that the teacher should know very many things besides what he is required to teach. A good knowledge of history will enable him to invest the study of geography with new interest. Acquaintance with algebra will give a clearness to his perceptions, and consequently to his mode of inculcating the principles, of arithmetic. The ability to delineate off-hand with chalk or pencil the forms of objects, gives him an unlimited power of illustrating every subject, and of clothing even the dullest with interest. Familiarity with the principles of rhetoric and with the rules of criticism, gives at once elegance and ease to his language, and the means of more clearly detecting what is faulty in the language of others. A knowledge of Latin or of French, or of any language besides his own, throws upon his own language a light of which he before had no conception. It produces in his ideas of grammar and of language generally, a change somewhat like that which the anatomist experiences from the study of comparative anatomy. The student of the human frame finds many things that he can not comprehend until he extends his inquiries to the other tribes of animals: to the monkey, the ox, the reptile, the fish, and even to the insect world. So it is with language. We return from the study of a foreign language invariably with an increased knowledge of our own. We have made one step at least from the technicalities of particular rules towards the principles and truths of general grammar.

But it is not necessary to multiply illustrations. I have already said enough to explain my meaning. Let me say, then, to every teacher, as you desire to rise in your profession, as you wish to make your task agreeable to yourself or profitable to your pupils, do not cease your studies as soon as you gain an appointment, but continue to be a learner as long as you continue to be a teacher, and especially strive, by all proper means, and at all times, to enlarge the bounds of your knowledge.

* * *

THE teacher's knowledge should be wider than his pupils' text-books.

DRAWING IN PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

BY PROF. W. H. YOUNG.

The recent commendation in the MONTHLY of the *drawing* feature in Harper's copy-books, recalled my attention to the neglect—unfortunate, I think—of drawing as a branch of primary instruction in our common and, especially, our ungraded schools.

It is a leading fault in our school methods that there is in them so much of the *drag*, *drive*, and *drumming*. There is too much force work. It is hurtful a score of ways. Teachers are wearied, fretted, disheartened by it; pupils are burdened, embarrassed, discouraged; nothing is well taught; and the cause of education is brought to shame.

Now in drawing, as a primary branch of study, we have something just the contrary. Next after objects, children are most fond of likenesses of them. The transition from toys to pictures is natural, immediate, and rapid. It is nature's easy stairs from the real to the unreal, from the concrete to the abstract.

Why do some lay so much stress upon "real" teaching? Because it presents the child's natural way of learning. But children must not always deal with objects only—they must take note of thoughts as well as things. This is well enough understood, but the fault is in trying to drag or drive them over the gulf that lies between the thing and the thought—the concrete and abstract. Now pictures are the stepping stones, or better, drawing is a sort of Natural Bridge, formed of the solid rock and clad with verdure, leading from objects to abstract ideas, on which children may easily, pleasantly, gladly, and healthily, for body, mind, and *heart*, be led from simpler to severer mental efforts—from the feebler to more vigorous mental growth.

How do we come to regard the eye and hand as valuable instruments in child education? Plainly, because, being *nature's chosen instruments* for this end, the child learns best and most easily by the use of them. It is undoubtedly to *encourage* the use of these that the same nature has given the child a disposition to imitate, of which picture-making is simply a lower, while painting and sculpture are higher forms. I need not philosophize upon the tendency of the human mind to *representation*. Suffice it to say, it seems to be the natural antecedent to *creation*,—certainly man's highest effort and his nearest approach to Deity.

The fact, however, is enough for my purpose. Children *do* delight in imitations, and, hence, are fond of pictures; they delight still more in creations, and are still fonder of making images, be it with the finger, knife, or pencil.

Can not this bent of the child be made available in his school education? Is it more or less than a feeler or tendril put out by the opening intellect to lay hold upon the surrounding world, by which to lift itself the further up, stay it in its feeble growth, and gather the food it needs for its budding life? Indeed, can it have been meant for any thing else? And if so, how little of sound philosophy, how little of true teaching, how little of good sense, in neglecting to lay hold of this thrifty scion of the mind and train it to uses, good in themselves, but better still as instruments of after growth.

What a help to juvenile education if we could bring to bear upon it the zest of play!—and how unfortunate, in every aspect, that the two, play and study, have been not only divorced, but made to *seem* antagonistic! Now, the use of the crayon and pencil is, or may be, in large part, play to the child; and, at the same time, so far from being antagonistic, may be made eminently conducive to study and learning.

Are not these considerations weighty enough to justify a larger attention to drawing as a branch of instruction in the primary as well as higher schools?

True, it *is* done in part. It is touched upon in the high school, just as slightly as can not be helped, in geometry. It is pretty generally applied in graded intermediate schools in the study of geography. It is also found in the graded primary schools of a few of the larger towns and cities in connection with primary reading. *And this is about all.* No, not all, for it is commonly forbidden, with penalties.

Now the fact is, drawing ought to be made a prominent part of primary education. It is the proper preparation for, basis and accompaniment of the very first alphabet, reading and spelling lessons. That book-maker who first adopts this idea and works it out skillfully in his primary readers, will have a run something like the Guyot or Ritter principle in Geography. It is also the proper preparation for, basis and accompaniment of writing. The Harpers are the first, so far as I know, to incorporate this principle into a copy-book. It will win. Progressive writing books with accompanying drawing-lessons adapted to every copy, is a capital idea. Every teacher of children, at least, should see these books. The drawing copies, of themselves, comprising every conceivable object, familiar to children, from a line to a landscape, are just the thing for the blackboard and object teaching.

I began to speak of drawing in primary instruction, and perhaps should not go farther at this time. I would say, however, that the utility and attractiveness of drawing as a means of culture by no means stop with the lower schools. It is in the department of Natural History, especially, that it charms, aids, and profits most.

In another paper I may offer some suggestions on the feasibility, means, and method of introducing drawing into ungraded schools.

DIFFERENT METHODS OF MAP-DRAWING.

There has been for many years a vague impression that map-drawing has, or ought to have, some connection with the study of geography. From this conviction has grown a usage, more or less general, that pupils *must draw maps.* No specific plan is suggested for the exercise, nor is any definite purpose kept in view.

The scholar may make an outline map or a full map, may make it on paper, on his slate, or at the board, may trace it before the window, or measure its distances with the rule, may preserve enough of its shape to enable its *near relations* to recognize it, or may shockingly distort its proportions,—in brief, may make it *as best he can*, of what country he pleases, with reference to what end he pleases, having regard to some other possible truth in geography, or the universe or not, as may suit his fancy, ONLY the map *must* be made. The teacher must see the picture.

In our enumeration of methods, this may be regarded as *zero*, or the absence of both method and purpose.

But within a few years, several different methods for conducting this exercise have been introduced to the public, and practiced in some schools.

The first may be denominated the method by *squares* or *rectangles.* In view of the shape of the state or country to be drawn, a figure most resembling the desired map, and bounded by right lines, is drawn, and the map drawn within, upon, and without it, making such deviations from the right lines as the shape of the map may require.

By the second method, *circles*, successive circles, concentric circles, and fragments of circles, serve as guides to map-drawing in the same manner as the squares before mentioned.

By the third method, the interesting family of *triangles*, with occasionally the aid of some of their near relatives, is made to serve the same office as squares, rectangles, and circles in the first and second methods.

By the fourth method, *a measure of length*, or specific distance, is assumed for the special map to be drawn, and this measure is repeated, subtracted, added, and divided, as the exigencies of the case may require. The aid, also, of figures, known and unknown to geometry, is occasionally invoked as auxiliary to this theory of map-drawing.

Last in order, we name the method by *parallels and meridians*, the one adopted in this MANUAL, and for which are claimed the following

ADVANTAGES.

First, that with very little of simple preparatory instruction, any pupil can draw the *shape* of any country or state with parallels and meridians for *guides*, as well as by the ingenious figures suggested in the first four methods. Parallels and meridians, at least for all maps of small countries, are but *rectangles repeated.* If rectangles are good guides to a draughtsman any where, why may not several be better than one? And, taking the shape of the states and countries of the world together, has any body ascertained that circles and triangles will fit, on first trial, more outlines than rectangles?

Second, that a *uniform measure* for all states and countries, for all the exercises of map-drawing, is better than an assumed and changeable one for each. Parallels furnish exactly this measure for one direction, and meridians a close approximation to it in another.

In map-drawing exercises, we need often to place on the board contiguous states and countries *side by side.* Individual states, drawn by all sorts of unlike, ingenious devices, and with *no common measure*, can only be placed side by side with much delay and confusion. Parallels and meridians may simply *be extended*, and all will be in proportion.

Third, that if any, or all other methods, would enable the pupil to draw the *shape* of countries with more facility, an important element would still be wanting—namely, the *absolute* and *comparative size* of countries. Some *known scale* must be adopted, or we should be utterly ignorant of the extent of territory embraced in any map before us. *Shape* is *one* point in a good map, as it is in a farm or building. *Size* is another point, at least equally important. Latitude and longitude furnish this ready index to the extent of territory before us for inspection.

Fourth, that geographical information of all sorts is incomplete and unsatisfactory, that is not associated with *latitude.* We wish, as we observe the shape and extent of a country, some index to its climate and vegetable productions, and by inference therefrom, to its capacity for sustaining a dense population. We wish, also, some key to its relations to the great system of physical forces by which the globe is encircled.

Distance from the equator, therefore, being an essential part of the geography of a country, will always be indicated by parallels of latitude *on any good map.*

We expect, then, that any true map before us, will reveal three important facts *at a glance*—namely, *shape of a country*, *extent of its territory*, as indicated by some scale, and *distance from the equator*, as indicated by latitude. Good map-drawing in schools, will keep the same points in view.

But will not pupils *forget* the latitude and longitude of places learned, especially the points of intersection with all sorts of lines—land lines, river lines, and coast lines? Probably they will, as what good things will they not forget? Besides, what shall be said of those methods of map-drawing where the lines and figures for construction for one country have little or nothing in common with those of another,—where the machinery, preparatory to the making of each separate map, must be substantially *a new creation!* There *may* be some danger of forgetfulness here, also.

We must, therefore, commend to all teachers, desiring to avoid the hazards of forgetfulness in methods of map-drawing, the usages of some schools, *the absence of all method*, referred to in the first of this article. As, in such cases, nothing whatever is learned, *and nothing whatever proposed to be learned*, there can, by no possibility, be any thing forgotten.—*From Cowdery's Manual of Map-Drawing.*

COMPOSITION WRITING.

BY MARY V. LEE.*

I remember with what delight our class was fairly introduced to the subject of Composition Writing, and now that my school going is over, I wonder at the horror generated in some modern pupils by the very word Composition. I sincerely pity both the children inflicted and the teacher who inflicts.

I would gladly photograph our happy thrills, and the masterly skill and tact of our instructress, who used to stand before our mixed country school, and, slowly drawing from her desk, a well-worn volume, "A Book of Nature," would say: "We will omit writing our copies to-day, and I will read something you will like to hear." Then, when every desk was cleared and every child in position, such strange wonderful worlds would be shown us!

Sometimes we went with the author and reader to a North Land, and became acquainted with the funny little people in fur garments, who in the short summers hastened to lay up stores of skins, flesh, and blubber, that were to warm and feed them during the long winters, when the only light came from the stars and moon, that in their silver way tried to make up for the golden rays of the sun. We learned to love the deer and dogs that were a wealth we could well appreciate. The teacher would lead us to recall Northern Lights we had seen, and then read of those grander fires that are marshaled in those cold skies.

Again, we would live on the burning desert; strike tent with the Arab; see the quick-scented camel snuff water from afar; feel a thrill of gratitude and wonder that even this sandy sea had been furnished with its living "*ship*"; bow before the deadly blast of the Simoon; and rejoice to have our horizon's circle broken by dim outlines of palm trees that rose from some glad oasis.

Sometimes leaving man and his ways, we went to Nature's lesser life. From the bee we learned industry and wisdom. Diagrams on the blackboard showed how strength, material, and space are beautifully economized in the comb. When we recalled the fact that young bees have just as much skill as the old, we understood God's great gift, *instinct*, to his lower creatures.

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Almost fearful was the moral lesson we drew from the fate of the poor drones, whose "room was worth more than their company" because they did not work.

As the teacher read paragraph after paragraph, we were made to give additional facts. When the reading was over, we *all* took our slates and began to reproduce what we had heard.

As we wrote, the teacher passed among us, pointing out our mistakes, encouraging us to complete statements, and showing us how our matter could be better arranged. The older pupils would have full slates and the younger a few sentences. As a conclusion, some members of each class were called upon to read their exercises. We all went at this work gladly, because we had ideas we longed to express. Each was anxious to remember as much as possible, so attention was thoroughly disciplined while the reading was going on.

But sometimes the ideas for our descriptions came to us from *real things*, not through the agency of words. We were so fortunate as to have a school house in the midst of a seven acre lot. To us belonged rocks, trees, shady nooks, moss-carpeted, sunny southern slopes, and a brook. In early spring, the wild flowers came to us. The knowing ones soon found the favorite haunts of violets, spring beauties, anemones, and the lovely liver leaf. The dandelions had such a free and easy way with them that they were found without search. Of course, the teacher's hand became a kind of bank in which we deposited our treasures which yielded a splendid interest as they smiled down upon us during our study hours from all sorts of vases.

As we grew up into the love of flowers, it was easy for our teacher to lead us to tell her on paper how we came to find the first spring beauty, and in what places the anemones love to grow. With the sights of three or four springs for our teachers, we thought it a pity if we did not know *all about it.* So with the memory of all sorts of woody sounds and smells, we went to our tasks. The long words were easiest to spell; for, as a preparation for this very exercise, the teacher used frequently to send us out among the trees and flowers to make lists of words for our next spelling lesson. We would hunt up the orthography in the dictionary which we were early taught to use. Thus in our minds was the *raw material*, and the work of manufacturing it into some pleasing form was never thought drudgery.

Over the desk was a crayon sketch of a pretty girl. The younger children would be questioned about the different features and what they expressed. By a kind of orderly summing up, they would be prepared to tell on paper about the "Little Girl."

I remember what a "new birth" our little geographies received—geographies so worn, *looked* through and "*gone* through" so many times, that we thought not one bit of sweet juice could be squeezed out by ever so hard pressing. And yet this teacher, during one of the first recitations we gave her in this study, made a picture which we had seen a thousand times, and which had been dumb to our dull ears, glow with beauty and speak a strange fascinating language. Then I knew I was being led along a pleasant road, I did not know *how*, but since, recalling the pleasure, I have been able to see what motive power impelled us. A few brisk questions led us to name all the objects in the picture, and then their relations to each other. Then we observed their properties, and in our minds thought out the real scene of which we had the representation. By brisk, vivid word-painting, the teacher would add any bits of coloring or form necessary to make a *complete whole.* As we were brought into sympathy with the work, we were able to help it on.

The picture was a Brazilian forest. I can see it now. There were only a few trees, vines, and birds; but that teacher made it expand under our eyes, till acres of luxuriant foliage opened before us, gorgeous birds flitted about, tropical blossoms swayed from clinging vines, their brilliancy unrivaled, but nearly equaled by those winged flowers, the butterflies. The Victoria Regia floated in royal state on the surface of some slow stream, her great white petals and golden center compelling us to crown her "Queen of Water Lilies." We listened to hear the hum of the insect world, and grew almost nervous fearing we should hear the dreaded hiss or feel the cold slime of some horrible reptile. We imagined we were genuine travelers—and what traveler is not willing to take admiring listeners on word journeys? We were delighted to do so, when, as a review, the teacher asked us to tell her all we had talked about.

In this way our old geographies became *illuminated* volumes. Thus writing was pleasant to us little fellows, because the idea of composition was charmingly developed without any special effort being made to apply the term, which, in too many cases, is the synonym of all that is unpleasant.

THE CLASS ROOM.

INTEREST—LESSON II.

I always require my pupils to perform some labor at their seats, and I always examine what they have done, and, at times, require them to show what they have learned from my instructions; but this is very different from ordering them to study a certain subject, and, on the morrow, hearing them recite it. The thirty examples, referred to in a former article, were not a *lesson*—they were not something to be learned, but something to be *done.* As the pupil does not learn them, he can not be said to recite them. We assigned examples from percentage, because that subject immediately precedes interest, and the pupil has not yet learned to work examples in interest.

Having called the class we will first ascertain whether the examples have been worked. Pupils should be taught to place their examples neatly and compactly on the slate, with sufficient data to enable them to reproduce the original question without other help. Analytical solutions are preferred, but are not forced upon the pupil. At the right period analysis will be easy and natural to him. We do not think, with Mrs. Pipchin, that the human mind must be forced open like an oyster.

The solutions least approved are those which we may call *technical.* They abound in such phrases as, "Add them together, and you have," "Subtract, and it leaves," "Multiply by 6, because there are 6 years, and it gives me," etc. I am unable to listen with patience to such stuff. Technicalities are tolerable only when necessary. We pass rapidly over this part of the lesson, or dwell carefully upon it according to circumstances. Oral instruction upon new topics, as in this case, is considered to take precedence. As we are careful not to present too many new things at a time, we usually have plenty of time to analyze our exercises, and to work examples in class.

We are careful to bestow praise and encouragement upon those who deserve them, but we are not afraid to censure those who need it. Whenever idleness and apathy show their ugly heads, they are severely rebuked. While practicing this system, we have but little trouble with government. The school thus taught, will almost govern itself.

Having disposed of the preliminaries, the questioning again begins:

At 6 per cent., what is the interest of one dollar for a year? \$2? \$3? \$5? \$10? \$20? \$100?

If 6 per cent. of the principal be the interest for 1 year, what per cent. will be the interest for 2 years? For 3 years? For 4 years?

What per cent. of the principal would ½ year's interest be? What is 6 months' interest of \$1 at 6 per cent.? What per cent. of \$1 is 3 cents? What would be the interest of \$*a* for 6 months? *Ans.* 3 *per cent. of* \$*a*.

If 1 year's interest be 6 per cent., what will be ⅓ year's interest? Ans. 2 *per cent.* One-third of a year is how many months? What is 4 months' interest of \$1? \$3? \$6? \$25? \$40? How do you know?

Now, if two per cent. of any principal is the interest for 4 months, what is the interest for 2 months? What is the interest of any sum for 2 months at 6 per cent. per annum? *One per cent. of that sum.*

How can we obtain one per cent. of any number? *By dividing by* 100. How shall we do this? *By cutting off two more decimal places.*

Willy take the board. What is the interest of \$868 for 2 months at 6 per cent.?

Class, read what he has written. *Eight dollars and sixty-eight cents.* What part of the example have you written? *The answer.* Could you have done any thing less than that?

Why is your work contrary to direction? *Because I can not read the example from what I have set down.* Can you write it according to our directions? *I will try.*

Writes: Int. \$868 2 months at 6 per cent.
\$8.68 = Interest 2 months at 6 per cent.

Correct. Read it. *What is the interest of* \$868 *for* 2 *months at* 6 *per cent,?* \$8.68 *is the interest for* 2 *months at* 6 *per cent.*

Who will give the analysis—tell the reason why \$8.68 is the answer?

Mary. *The interest of* \$868 *for* 1 *year would be* 6 *per cent. of that sum; for* ⅙ *of a year it is* ⅙ *of* 6 *per cent.*, *or* 1 *per cent. of that sum, which is* \$8.68.

Having the interest for 2 months, how can we get it for 4 months? 6 months? 8 months? 10 months? 1 year? 1 year 2 months? 1 year 4 months? 1 year 6 months? 1 year 8 months? 1 year 10 months? 2 years?

Sara, take the board; Class work on slates. What is the interest of \$1868.45 for 1 year 2 months, at 6 per cent.?

Sara writes: Interest $1868.45 1 year 2 months at 6 per cent.
$18.6845 = 2 months' interest at 6 per cent.
7
$130.7915 = 14 months' interest at 6 per cent.

How many have it in the same form? Sara, read.

What would be 3 months' interest of $40? James: 60 *cents.* Why? *Because* 2 *months' interest is* 40 *cents, and* 1 *month's is half as much, which is* 20 *cents.*

For exercises work thirty examples. Excused. The examples are all at 6 per cent., and for years and months without days.

Marion, O. W. W.

POSSESSIVE CASE.—No. III.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

Oliver B. Peirce, in his "First Lessons in Grammar," p. 78, writes "Mr. Fox's [property]", and appends the remark, "Remember that such a name, followed immediately by an *un*accented syllable, has only the apostrophe; as, Mr. *Fox'* im*pru*dence." It is not certain what Mr. Peirce means by "such a name", for on the same page he writes "Felix' [property]." Whatever he means, we are able to confute his assertion by the following examples:

"Mr. Fox's sa*gac*ity."—*Gent's Mag.*, vol. 2, p. 333.
"Fox's Pro*me*theus."—*Gent's Mag.*, vol. 5, p. 105.
"Fox's ex*treme* reverence for Dryden."—*Ibid.*, vol. 6, p. 576.
"Mr. Fox's col*lec*tion."—*Macaulay's Hist. of Eng.*, vol. 1, p. 223.
"Mr. Fox's his*tor*ical work."—*Ibid.*, p. 444.
"Mr. Fox's o*pin*ion."—*Phillips's Curran.* p. 451.
"The Fox's con*ceal*ed intentions."—*Smart's Horace*, vol. 2, p. 421.
"Mr. Fox's East *In*dia Bill."—*Macaulay's Essays*, vol. 5, p. 107.

If Mr. Peirce meant monosyllables ending in *x*, we have the following additional examples:

"Dix's Un*ho*ly Alliance."—*Harper's Mag.*, vol. 1, p. 5.
"Mr. Wix's com*plaint.*"—*Gent's Mag.*, vol. 14, p. 141.
"Le Keux's memorials of Cambridge."—*Ibid.*, p. 141.

If *x* is not pronounced in Keux, this example is inadmissible. If Mr. Peirce meant only words ending in *ox*, all these last examples are inadmissible, but we might include

"Madox's ex*cur*sions."—*Gentleman's Mag.*, vol. 2, p. 561.

Mr. S. W. Whitney, who has been writing a series of excellent grammatical notes for the *American Educational Monthly*, said in the October *Monthly* for 1867, after having written two pages of directions as to the writing of the possessive case, "From the above class we unhesitatingly except, and write without an additional *s* in the possessive, all names ending in *rs*, as *Ayres'*, *Beers'*, *Manners'*, *Waters'*, *Withers'*." He says he does this "on the score of euphony, sustained as it is by usage." He quotes from G. P. Marsh, "Lord *Berners'* Froissart", and from C. Knight, "Dr. *Chalmers'* knowledge." Now I see neither the euphony nor the prevailing usage. He does not cite the work of Marsh's in which "*Berners'*" is found. My notes show that it is on p. 651 of Marsh's "Lectures on the English Language"; but these notes also show the following:

"Lord Berners's Froissart."—*Marsh's English Language and its Literature*, pp. 336, 337, 498, 501.
"Lord Berners's Translation."—*Ibid.*, pp. 7, 495.
"Lord Berners's translation."—*Ibid.*, pp. 497, 537.
"Lord Berners's orthography."—*Ibid.*, p. 501.
"Chalmers's Apology."—*Craik's English Literature and Language*, vol. 1, p. 13.
"Chalmers's Life of Ruddiman."—*Ibid.*, pp. 84, 84.
"Chalmers's collection."—*Ibid.*, p. 34.
"Mrs. Clavers's Western Clearings."—*Dict. of Americanisms*, pp. 34, 97, 212, 214, 287, 288, 322, 333, 362, 370, 387.
"Mrs. Clavers's Forest Life."—*Ibid.*, 78, 86, 94, 202, 205, 236, 241, 271, 283, 308, 332, 343, 346, 353, 385.
"Chambers's Encyclopædia."—*Harper*, vol. 23, pp. iv, 262; *Atlantic*, vol. 8, pp. iv, 126.
"Rivers's Moral Philosophy."—*Harper*, vol. 19, p. 4.
"Saunders's Festival of Song."—*Ibid.*, vol. 32, p. iv.
"Chambers's Edinburgh Papers."—*Atlantic*, vol. 7, p. iii.
"Chambers's pamphlet."—*Ibid.*, p. 125.
"Rogers's Introduction to Burke's Works."—*Buckle's Hist. of Civilization in England*, vol. 1, pp. 321, 336.
"Chalmers's *Biog. Dict.*"—*Ibid.*, 305, 513.

It should, however, be stated, that in the second volume, *Chalmers'* is found very frequently, as well as *Chambers'*. There are in the first volume more than two hundred examples of the possessives of nouns ending in the sound of *s* or *z*, comprising about fifty *different* nouns; in the second volume there are only about a dozen different nouns so used. Since we have *Adams's*, *Jones's*, etc., in the first volume, and *Adams'*, *Jones'*, etc., in the second, I conclude that either the author or American proof-reader did not exhibit the same care in the second volume as in the first.

"Olbers's hypothesis."—*An. of Sci. of Disc.*, 1855, p. 376.

My notes show numerous other examples of Chalmers's, Chambers's, Rogers's, Rivers's, and Olbers's, as well as of Nares's, Peters's, Powers's, Rodgers's, Akers's, etc.

Other equally baseless whims in reference to the mode of writing certain possessives, will be refuted in future articles.

School Officers' Department.

MEANS OF IMPROVING TOWNSHIP SCHOOLS.

In the absence of county supervision—one of the great needs of our school system—there is an urgent necessity of employing every available agency for the improvement of the schools in our townships. Among these agencies are acting managers of schools, school visitors, township school examinations and reviews, and teachers' meetings and institutes. The first of these agencies is provided for by the school law, and all are consistent with its provisions.

There are very few townships in the State in which an experienced teacher, or other active friend of education, may not be appointed to visit and examine the schools. If the time thus spent should not exceed one day to each school, the influence exerted would be potent and salutary, as experience clearly shows. A letter before us is to the point. The writer, an intelligent lady, states that the board of education of the township in which she is teaching, has appointed a teacher an examiner of all the schools of the township. He conducts the examinations on Saturday, and the several teachers attend as many of them as possible, thus receiving important suggestions and gaining much other valuable information. At these examinations the attendance and punctuality of pupils receives attention. The plan works well. Teachers, parents, and pupils are interested, and progress secured.

We have known great good to result from public examinations, or reviews, held under the auspices of the board. The plan is simple. The board appoints a day, and classes in reading, spelling, writing, or any other branch in which improvement is most desired, are brought together from the several schools. The exercises are conducted by some person appointed for the purpose, or the teachers are permitted to exhibit the results of their instruction and the methods employed. This must, of course, be done without fostering a spirit of jealous rivalry.

But we desire to call special attention to the last agency above referred to, namely, the organization of teachers' meetings and institutes. This agency touches the source of school improvement—the *teacher*. Whatever tends to increase the qualifications of the teacher is of the first importance in school progress. In some of the States, the law supplements the county institute by the township or district institute. The teachers meet at stated times for the discussion of plans and methods, and other persons competent to render professional assistance are invited to be present. It is evident that such meetings must be very beneficial. We are pleased to see that this subject is receiving attention in Ohio. In several townships regular teachers' associations have been organized, and successful meetings are held. The association in Sycamore township, Hamilton county, has held several large semi-monthly meetings. The one in Franklin township, Clermont county, meets on the first Saturday of each month.

We earnestly commend these several agencies to township boards of education, with the hope that some one of them may be deemed worthy of trial. Let the work of school improvement be vigorously carried forward. There is great need of it.

REGULATIONS TO PREVENT IRREGULAR ATTENDANCE AND TARDINESS.

[The following is the material portion of a report recently adopted by the Board of Education of Salem, O., and addressed to the parents and guardians of the pupils attending the public schools:]

It is well known that many pupils are kept from school by their parents, or are allowed to remain at home, when there is no legitimate excuse. It is exceedingly rare that there is a legitimate excuse for tardiness; for every ninety-nine cases in a hundred, might be avoided by anticipation and the control of circumstances.

THE EVILS OF IRREGULAR ATTENDANCE.

1. Irregular attendance has a general deleterious influence on the schools.
2. It delays classes and necessitates a considerable amount of extra labor on the part of the teachers.

THE EVILS OF TARDINESS.

1. Disregard of punctuality tends to a dissolute habit of mind, and diminishes a pupil's chance of success in life.
2. Tardy pupils fall behind their classes.
3. Tardy pupils often lose the most valuable lessons of the day, by failing to hear the morning and afternoon explanations of teachers.
4. Tardy pupils do great injustice to prompt pupils by taking a portion of the time of the teacher to hear their excuses.
5. Tardy pupils set an example which is damaging in its tendency upon the habits of all prompt pupils.
6. Tardy pupils wrong all parties by failing to hear all daily duties explained, and thereby failing to move along in sympathy with the school.

To assist the teachers in securing a better attendance in our schools and diminishing tardiness, we have adopted the following

REGULATIONS:

1. Every pupil in the Salem Public Schools who shall be absent *six half* days in any four consecutive weeks, without an excuse from his parent, or guardian, given either in person, or by written note, satisfying the teacher that the absences were caused by his own sickness, or by sickness or death in the family, or to avoid a serious and imprudent exposure of health, shall forfeit his seat in the school; and the teacher shall forthwith notify the parent or guardian, and in special cases the superintendent, that the pupil is suspended. If in consequence of the failure of the parent or guardian to render the excuse in time, a teacher suspends a pupil whose absences are excusable, he shall restore the pupil on receiving the necessary explanation from the parent or guardian.

In all other cases applications for restoration must be made to the superintendent, at his office, on Monday forenoons. The superintendent shall make no restoration until the parent or guardian has given satisfactory assurance that the pupil will be regular in his attendance in the future. All restorations made by the superintendent shall take effect on the first Monday of the next calendar month, unless in special cases, which are left to his discretion.

In the application of the foregoing rule, two dismissals for any cause whatever other than the sickness of the pupil, shall be regarded as one absence.

2. The school-rooms and school-yards will be open for the admission of pupils, at the first ringing of the bell in the forenoon, 15 minutes after 8 o'clock, by railroad time, and pupils shall proceed promptly to their seats at the first tap of the second ringing of the bell, at 20 minutes before 9 o'clock. The doors will be closed to the admission of pupils at 15 minutes before 9 o'clock. The corresponding time in the afternoon will be 15 minutes, 30 minutes, and 35 minutes after 1 o'clock.

By Order of the Board of Education.

POWER OF SCHOOL BOARDS TO CHECK ABSENTEEISM AND TARDINESS.

The belief is somewhat prevalent that boards of education have no legal authority to enact and enforce rules designed to secure punctuality and regularity of attendance, and, especially, when such rules involve the suspension of the pupil for non-compliance with their requirements. We find in the "Official Department" of the *Illinois Teacher* a judicial opinion on this question, which, we are sure, will interest our readers, since the law of Illinois is similar to that of Ohio. It was given by Hon. James Steele, Judge of the 27th Judicial Circuit of Illinois, in the trial of a case involving the right of a school board to make the following rule:

> "Any pupil who shall be absent or tardy, shall be required (the next time he or she comes to school from home after such absence or tardiness) to present to the teacher a written excuse or statement from his or her parent or guardian, showing, to the satisfaction of the teacher, that such absence or tardiness was caused or occurred with the knowledge or consent of the parent or guardian, and also showing the length of time such pupil was so detained, or permitted to be absent, by the parent or guardian."

Under this rule a pupil was suspended for refusing to bring a written excuse for tardiness, and the father who had caused the rule to be violated, brought action against the school authorities.

The following are Judge Steele's instructions to the jury:

1. The directors of a school-district are authorized by law to adopt and enforce all necessary rules and regulations for the management and government of the school or schools within their district, and to suspend or expel pupils from such schools for disobedient conduct; and while it is true that the law secures to every child, of proper age, the right to attend and receive instruction at our public schools, yet that right must be so exercised, by each particular child, as not to interfere with the full enjoyment of the same right by every other child. No child can be said to have an exclusive right to attend our public schools, but all children, of proper age, have a

common right to attend them, subject, however, to such necessary rules and regulations as the directors of each school may see fit to make; and if the parents of any particular child see fit to make rules and regulations for such child which shall conflict with the necessary rules and regulations made by the directors for the government of the school where such child has a right to attend, then the necessary rules and regulations, so made by the directors, must govern; and if such child, while in attendance upon school, persists in obeying the conflicting rules so made by its parents, and thereby disobeying the rules so made by the directors, the latter have the right either to suspend or expel such child from the school.

2. It is true that parents have a paramount right to control their children, and to make such rules for their government as they may deem necessary; but if parents desire their children to enjoy the benefits of our public schools, they should not make such rules for the government of their children as will compel the children to disobey the necessary rules and regulations made by the directors of the school where such children have the right to attend.

3. If a rule made by a board of directors is a reasonable one, and is calculated to improve the schools, and secure punctuality and promptness in the attendance of the pupils, then the directors are exercising their lawful powers in making such a rule, and they have the right to compel obedience to such rule, by all pupils attending the schools in their district, and to suspend or expel any pupil who may refuse to obey such rules, provided such suspension may, in their judgment, be necessary for the welfare of the schools under their control.

4. If a board of directors, in the lawful exercise of powers conferred by law, expel a pupil from their school, and the scholar so expelled refuses to leave the school-room, and persists in defying and disregarding the just and legal authority of the board, such pupil may be ejected, by force, from the school; and it makes no difference whether this defiance and disregard of the authority of the board arise from the pupil's own willfulness and stubbornness, or from orders or commands given to such pupil by his or her parents.

5. In determining whether the rule in question in this case is a reasonable and proper one or not, the jury are to take into consideration all the evidence; and they are instructed that, in matters of this nature, the evidence both of experienced teachers and experienced school-directors is competent to be considered by the jury.

6. Before the jury can find for the plaintiff, they must find, by a preponderance of evidence, that either the said plaintiff was not tardy in her attendance upon the school, or that the said rule concerning tardiness was unnecessary; and in weighing the evidence, the jury should take into consideration the age and character of the witnesses, their comparative means of knowing what they testify about, and their interest in the case.

7. And finally, if the jury believe, from all the evidence in the case, that the defendants * * * * * then the jury should find for the defendants; provided they believe, from all the evidence, that said rule was reasonable and proper for the management of said school; and the jury are instructed that the fact that the parents of said Drusie were either ignorant of the existence of such rule, or refused to furnish her with a written statement or excuse required by such rule, can furnish no excuse to said Drusie for disobeying or disregarding it; for, if she knew of the rule, it was her duty to inform her parents of it, and it was then the duty of the parents to enable the child to comply with the rule, by furnishing for her the excuse or statement required of them.

HEATING AND VENTILATION.—E. A. Gastman, Supt. Public Schools, Decatur, Ill., writes: "We have two houses in this city supplied with Ruttan's furnaces and ventilators, commended by Mr. Kissell in your March number. They have given complete satisfaction. During the past winter our school-rooms have been comfortably warmed in the coldest days, and it has not been necessary to lower a window to secure good ventilation. The usual complaints of pupils about cold feet have not been heard, and the teachers agree in pronouncing the rooms the pleasantest they ever taught in. I believe the cost of fuel is less than with common stoves."

Editorial Department.

THE large number and excellent character of the contributions received for this number justify a considerable reduction in the amount of space usually appropriated to this department. We have not only omitted editorials, but we have also postponed several valuable contributions until next month. Among these are articles by Prof. Henry N. Day, New Haven, Ct., Dr. M. L. Holbrook, New York, W. D. Henkle, Salem, and T. C. Mendenhall, Columbus. We hope to receive several other contributions at an early day.

THE TRUE COURSE OF STUDY.

The leading educational inquiry of the day is, "What is the true course of study?" The subject is discussed in nearly every educational meeting held, and books, pamphlets, and papers treating of some phase of the question, follow each other in quick succession. For years the inquiry was confined almost exclusively to collegiate studies; then it touched the other extreme—primary instruction; and more recently the inquiry has extended to intermediate studies. Indeed, the inquiry seems to be pressed along the whole line of school studies, and at every point a change—a forward movement—is demanded.

We are pleased to notice that the drift of the discussion is in the direction of a wiser adjustment of the several studies rather than toward the exclusion of a part and the narrowing of the course. The advocates of the exclusive study of the three "R's" in elementary schools, and the exclusive pursuit of classical or scientific courses in higher institutions, are alike decreasing in number. It is more and more widely believed that *a truer order of studies* and *a better division of time* present the true solution of the problem. What is needed is the proper union of all important branches of school study in a complete and philosophic course of training.

We were led to these thoughts by the re-perusal of Gen. Garfield's address on "College Education," delivered last year at the Hiram Eclectic Institute. Starting from the same premises as Herbert Spencer in his essay on "What knowledge is of most Worth?" and pursuing a noticeably similar line of argument, he at length stops short and protests against being carried to Mr. Spencer's conclusion, that Latin and Greek should be driven from the academy and the college. He declares that there are most weighty reasons why these "noble languages" should be retained as an important and necessary part of a liberal education. But he claims that too large a *proportion* of the student's time is given to them, and that a large part of this time "is wasted on pedantic trifles."

There is a great deal of truth in these positions, though plainly taken in spite of the logic of the address. Less of technics and more of the structure, idioms, and spirit of the classics, would save time for a wider and more thorough study of science. But we are somewhat surprised at Gen. Garfield's proposition to drop Latin and Greek as required studies after the Freshman year. We fear that the students admitted to Hiram College for many years to come, will have a very dim insight into the "genius and spirit" of these languages. It may do for Harvard College with its thorough classical preparatory schools to adopt such a course, but the change in the curriculum of our Western Colleges should be in the opposite direction. Here we need more of Greek proportionally *in* the college and less in the preparatory course. The condition of our academies and high schools and the principles of a philosophic course of education alike require that Greek be pursued later and the natural sciences earlier than at present.

SCHOOL COMMISSIONER'S REPORT.

Just as we are completing this form of the MONTHLY, a copy of the fourteenth annual report of the School Department comes to our table. We regret that we have not time to read the document carefully, and that we have only sufficient space this month to allude to it.

The report opens with a favorable statement of the progress of the schools in the cities, towns, and villages of the State, and, so far as school expenditures are concerned, in the rural districts. The increase of expenditures in the entire State, over the previous year, is nearly *a million dollars!* The usual summary of statistics is followed by a comprehensive view of the design and scope of the educational work undertaken by the State, and the claimed failure of the school system to meet the purpose for which it was organized. We have only glanced over this portion of the report (covering some thirty pages), but we see that the low condition of the rural schools is fully considered. As remedies for this failure of the school-system four measures are recommended:

1. A system of county supervision of schools.
2. A system of professional instruction for teachers.
3. The abolition of the sub-district system, and the adoption of the township system without subdivisions.
4. The distribution of the State's gratuity on the basis of aggregate school attendance, instead of, as now, on the basis of enumeration.

The competency of these several measures to institute needed reforms and secure great progress in the schools, is strongly presented. We are pleased to see the claims of professional instruction so fully recognized, and that the plan or system proposed by the preceding Commissioner, is so thoroughly indorsed.

We have so earnestly advocated the first three of these measures, namely, county supervision, professional instruction, and the township system, that we need not add here our approval of them. They are, beyond question, the three great measures for the improvement of our school system. We have doubts respecting the usefulness of the fourth change recommended, but it is certainly worthy of consideration.

MISCELLANY.

We can still supply back numbers from January—the first number of the current volume. Will not each of our readers try to send us at least one new subscriber this month?

A correspondent wishes to know how we would pronounce the vowel *a* in such words as *a*gain, *a*round, Cub*a*, algebr*a*, etc. When the vowel *a* forms or ends an unaccented syllable, it has properly a brief sound of Italian *a* (*far, arm*), but in familiar speech it is usually so slighted and obscured as to be scarcely distinguishable from *u* in *urn, surge*, etc. When it is followed by a vowel, as in *a*or′ta (first *a*), *a*e′rial, it has its long sound somewhat shortened. In the terminations -*a*ny and -*a*ry, it has usually the sound of short *e*.

One of Horace Greeley's favorite arguments against the utility of a liberal education, is the fact that college graduates are often outstripped by uneducated men, or, as he styles them, "self-made men." A writer in the *Keokuk Gate City* thus disposes of this specious argument: "For every single farmer or mechanic who has enjoyed the very best advantages for education at our colleges, there are five thousand who have not. Now it is altogether possible that other circumstances, physical health, and the natural mental abilities of many persons among the five thousand *may* be vastly superior to those of the single individual specified, in which case it need not be wonderful if some man helped little outstrips him who has been helped much. According to the doctrine of chances if the educated man *has* one hundred chances in his favor, he still has four thousand nine hundred to overcome in his race for the most distinguished success in his calling."

Need of Normal Instruction.—A late number of the *Medina County Republican* contains an excellent communication from Supt. Barnard, of Medina, on the great need of better teachers. After alluding to the influence of the late war on the schools, he adds: "We need teachers now who can awaken an interest in the cause; teachers who can restore good government to our schools, not with the rod and cudgel, but with tact and love; teachers who can make the acquisition of knowledge *delightful* to children, as well as *hear* lessons in regular routine; teachers who can store their pupils' minds with practical wisdom, and their souls with true worth. Shall we, *can* we have them?" As a means of supplying the schools with such teachers increased facilities for normal or professional training are suggested. The teachers' institute, which is doing much to improve teachers, must be supplemented by the normal institute continuing in session for several weeks.

We are happy to add that Mr. Barnard proposes to carry out this suggestion by organizing a teachers' training class—the course of instruction to continue six weeks. We hope the enterprise may be liberally patronized. He is competent to the work.

Huron Co. Institute.—The fourth annual session of this institute was held at Norwalk beginning March 30th, and continuing five days. Two hundred and four teachers were in attendance. The exercises were under the direction of R. W. Stevenson, the able and popular superintendent of the Norwalk schools, and were very interesting and profitable. Instruction in English grammar was given by Mr. Stevenson; in arithmetic and geography by Prof. A. Schuyler, of Berea; in U. S. history and theory and practice by Geo. H. Twiss, of Columbus; and in physical geography by P. N. Schuyler, of Norwalk. Rev. A. S. Walsh gave one lecture on elocution, and S. F. Newman, of Milan, one on mental arithmetic. Classes in reading were presented by Mrs. Dunbar, and Mrs. Cunningham. The evening lectures were delivered by Rev. Wm. Newton, Rev. T. F. Hildreth, Prof. A. Schuyler, and P. N. Schuyler. They were largely attended and well received. A resolution was passed approving of the efforts of the examiners to raise the standard of qualifications. Friday evening was spent in a very pleasant social re-union at Whittlesey Hall, which was largely attended by teachers and citizens. Altogether Old Huron takes the palm in the institute work of this spring. *Thirty-five* subscribers to the MONTHLY were secured.

TRUMBULL CO. INSTITUTE.—A five days' session of this institute was held at Warren, beginning March 30th. About eighty teachers were in attendance, and the time was very profitably spent in receiving instruction from the following veteran educators: T. W. Harvey—grammar, geography, and theory and practice; Prof. James Marvin—arithmetic and physiology; Hon. Anson Smyth—theory and practice; and N. A. Barrett—arithmetic and reading. Mr. Harvey gave two evening lectures—subject of the first, "The Head and Heart"; Prof. Marvin one on "The Successful Teacher"; and Mr. Smyth one on "Ohio—Its History and Resources." A resolution was adopted declaring it to be the opinion of the institute that only the common branches should be taught in the sub-district schools, and that these should be taught thoroughly. (Why this restriction?) The executive committee are already taking steps to hold another institute in the fall. We received fourteen subscribers.

KNOX CO. INSTITUTE.—The first institute held in Knox county for many years, if not the first ever held, convened at Mt. Vernon, April 7th, and continued in session four days. About one hundred teachers were in attendance, and a good degree of interest in the exercises was manifested. The instructors were Prof. Theo. Sterling, of Kenyon College, Mr. Marsh, Supt. of the Mt. Vernon schools, and Rev. Dr. Muenscher, of Mt. Vernon. It was resolved to hold a meeting of the teachers of the county on the last Saturday of each month, and two regular institutes each year. Prof. Sterling is evidently the leader in this forward movement, and we hope Old Knox may soon take rank with other counties in professional effort and progress. Our correspondent thinks that not five of the teachers present had ever before heard of the MONTHLY.

CLARKE COUNTY.—The county teachers' association met at South Charleston on Saturday, March 14th, Rev. Chandler Robbins, of Springfield, in the chair. Supt. Crosman, of South Charleston, read an interesting report advocating the phonetic method of teaching reading. The report was followed by an animated discussion. The afternoon was devoted to the consideration of the subject of moral training. The discussion, which took a wide range, was participated in by Messrs. Armstrong, Robbins, and Ruggles, of Springfield, Messrs. Crosman, Aikman, Marshall, Bail, Jones, and Holmes, of South Charleston, and Mr. Chamberlain, of Harmony township. On the whole, the meeting was the best yet held by the Association.

LUCAS COUNTY.—While the examiners are firm in rejecting applicants glaringly incompetent, it is still their aim to license enough teachers to supply all the schools. This aim they find it difficult to realize owing to the great scarcity of teachers. The high price of board in Toledo prevents teachers from the rural districts from attending the high school, and there are few other schools in the county for preparing teachers. The consequence is, that many of the schools are in very incompetent hands, and some of them are wholly without instructors. What is needed is increased facilities for preparing teachers. Another great want is a competent directing head to invigorate the whole system. Thus writes Mr. Geo. B. Brown, of Toledo,—a member of the board of examiners. He adds: "Must we wait another year for normal schools and county supervision?"——The institute announced last month was postponed until fall.

Warren County.—An excellent meeting of the county association was held at Waynesville, March 28th, President Ridge in the chair. Miss Clara Bedford read an essay on the "Duties and Rewards of the Teacher"; Mr. Furnas, of Dayton, on the "Principles of Language," which was received with marked appreciation; Mr. Ridge on "School Government"; and Miss Olive Coffeen—subject not named in the secretary's report. The best method of preventing improper language on the play-ground and the punishments proper to inflict for impudence, were quite fully discussed. The next meeting will be held in Butlerville on the fourth Saturday in April.

Massillon.—The annual examination of the public schools was held the second week in April, and gave high satisfaction. The classes acquitted themselves with credit, showing thorough instruction and a most praiseworthy ambition to excel in their studies. "Much of the credit of this success," says the Massillon paper, "is due to the untiring industry with which Professor Kimball attends to the responsible duties placed upon him as principal. Our citizens are fortunate in having one so deeply interested in the welfare of their children." This high compliment is most richly deserved.——We are glad to learn that Mr. Harsh has been induced to withdraw his resignation as a member of the school board. He has labored long and successfully to build up and perfect the schools, and his retirement would be a serious public loss. The teachers have presented him a beautiful silver pitcher as a token of their regard for him both as a friend and a school officer.

Columbus.—Mr. Alfred Kirk, for several years past the popular and efficient principal of the Middle Grammar School, has been elected principal of one of the ward schools of Chicago, at a salary of $2,000. Mr. K. took a deep interest not only in the improvement of the schools of the city, but also of the county. He was the chief manager in the county teachers' association, and our fine subscription list here is due largely to his efforts. He is succeeded by Mr. Abram Brown, of Vermont, a graduate of Dartmouth College.——Mr. Charles E. Lane, principal of the State Street Grammar School, has accepted the superintendency of the public schools of Van Wert, O., at a salary of $1.500. He was connected with the schools here but seven months, but he proved himself to be a skillful and successful teacher. He is succeeded by Mr. T. C. Mendenhall, of Middletown, formerly principal of the Salem High School.——Miss Mary Renner has been obliged by ill health to resign her position as teacher in the High School—a position she has filled with the highest satisfaction. She is succeeded by Miss Emma Gray, promoted from the North Grammar School.

Norwalk.—A committee from Cleveland has been making a raid on the schools of this city, carrying off one of the teachers, and expressing a desire to take half-a-dozen more. This is a high compliment to the Norwalk teachers. The report of the examiners for the first six months of the present school year, represents the schools to be in good condition, and their general management excellent. The great drawback is a want of school accommodations.

Lancaster.—Geo. W. Welsh has taken charge of the North Grammar School *vice* D. Cole, resigned. Mr. S. S. Knabenshue remains in charge of the South Grammar School. The flourishing condition of the schools is shown by the fact that they are patronized by a great number of the people in the vicinity of Lancaster, so much so that the adjoining district schools are but little advanced beyond a primary grade.

Clyde.—This town has voted for the general school law. Its schools have heretofore been conducted under a special law.

Correction.—In our notice of the report of the Kansas Normal School, we failed to give proper credit for the official testimonials from several States and Canada, which it contained. They were written in response to letters of Prof. Phelps, of Minnesota, and are found in his report of last year.

Teachers' Institutes were held in April at Fremont and Woodsfield, but we have received no report of the proceedings. We hope to be able to notice more fully next month.

The Craig Microscope.—This instrument, patented in 1862, places the enjoyment of microscopic investigations within the reach of persons of limited means. It is a simple microscope of high magnifying power, and yet is so arranged that its use requires but little skill, the usual difficulty of getting and retaining the focus being happily avoided. It is a good instrument for popular use.

The Lancaster School Mottoes.—We have received from J. P. McCaskey, Lancaster, Pa., twelve cards containing the Lord's Prayer, and thirty school mottoes. They are made of heavy 4-ply card-board, 8 by 14 inches, and are handsomely printed on both sides. They can be easily read across a large school-room. Price, $1.00 per set.

Hon. Anson Smyth.—We are glad to learn that our good friend's anticipations respecting his new business are, in spite of the hard times, being realized. His success is evidently due to his large investment in good common sense, which, beyond question, is the best paying stock in market. He has also the habit of not only minding his own business, but of attending to it. What we desire to add is, that Mr. Smyth is general agent for the Manhattan Life Insurance Company of New York.

W. R. **Spooner**, late principal of the schools of New Vienna, O., has taken charge of the schools of Bloomingburgh.

OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION—ANNUAL MEETING.

The Twentieth Annual Meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association will be held in Dayton, commencing Tuesday evening, June 30th, 1868. The sessions will be held during Wednesday, July 1st, and Thursday, July 2d.

The Inaugural Address of President Henkle will be delivered Tuesday evening, June 30th. The Annual Address will be delivered Wednesday evening, July 1, 1868.

Papers will be read before the Association on the following topics:

1. Courses of Study for High Schools.
2. Relations of Public Schools to Colleges.
3. County School Supervision.
4. Graded Schools for Rural Districts.
5. How shall the work of Teachers' Institutes in the State be most successfully carried forward?
6. Practical Language Lessons in the School Room.

Discussions will follow the reading of the papers on the above subjects.

A memoir of the late Wm. N. Edwards, of Troy, will be read by W. E. Crosby, of Lima.

The names of persons selected to read articles, will be announced in the June number of the Monthly.

M. F. COWDERY,
Chn. Exec. Com.

Columbus, *April* 18, 1868.

BOOK NOTICES.

Treatise on Geometry and Trigonometry. For Colleges, Schools, and Private Students. Written for the Mathematical Course of Joseph Ray, M.D., by Eli T. Tapppan, M.A., Professor of Mathematics in Ohio University. Cincinnati: Sargent, Wilson & Hinkle.

This work contains the author's excellent treatise on Plane and Solid Geometry, published in 1866, and a new treatise on Trigonometry, both being combined in a book of convenient size and fine appearance.

The portion presenting the Elements of Geometry has been carefully revised, and yet we discover no material changes—a fact which attests the thoroughness with which the original chapters were prepared. A fuller acquaintance with the treatise but confirms the high opinion of it which we formed on our first examination. The several subjects are introdued in a perfectly systematic order—a merit not possessed by ordinary geometries,—and the demonstrations are simple, concise, and satisfactory. The mode of proof by *supraposition* is used more freely than in other works, but it has the advantage of allowing a more natural and systematic arrangement. The demonstrations are accompanied with many practical deductions and applications, and a large number of practical exercises is added to give the student the power of original demonstration—the power of geometric invention—and to test the clearness and accuracy of his knowledge.

The treatise on Trigonometry is characterised by the same excellencies as the Geometry. It is brief and yet comprehensive and thorough—the result of the use of the algebraic instead of the geometric method. Angles are conceived to be generated by the revolution of a line about a point, and their measure and functions are followed by the use of the trigonometrical tables and the discussion of the Plane Triangle. Spherical Trigonometry is treated in the same admirable manner. The usual Logarithmetic Tables, which are accurately compiled, are followed by tables affording aids to Precise Calculations.

In a word, we have here an excellent treatise—one richly worthy of the attention of all teachers of this noble science. The beautiful typograghy, the fine paper and unsurpassed binding reflect great credit on the taste and enterprise of the publishers.

1. Histoire d'une Bouche'e de Pain. Par Jean Mace'.
2. Condensed French Instruction. First American, from the Thirteenth London Edition. By C. J. Delille.
3. Lecons de Litterature Francaise Classique, from its Origin to the Close of the 18th Century. 390 pp. 8vo.
4. Litteratura Francaise Contemporaine. 300 pp. 8vo.

New York: Leypoldt and Holt; Cincinnati: Rob't Clarke & Co.

Sometime ago we gave our opinion of the "History of a Mouthful of Bread," designed to bring the function of digestion within the comprehension of very young readers. We have now to introduce our readers to the original work itself, in its charming French dress, adapted to the use of learners of our language, by being supplied with a sufficient glossary and a list of the idiomatic phrases that occur in the works.

For those who have already overcome the first difficulties of French, I can not think of a book at once more sprightly and more instructive,—more deserving to supersede the dull collections of extracts that are generally used. The only work that could compete with it in that respect, is the Grand-pe're; but though, in the main, very lively and instructive, and sound in its morality, it contains too many local allusions and details; whereas the "History of a Mouthful of

Bread" is a perfectly catholic book, inasmuch as the stomach is a universal institution.

C. J. Delille is well known in England as one of the most successful teachers of French, and one of the best writers on the grammar of the language. He has given us here, in a 12mo volume of 142 pages, the essentials of French grammar with a double set of exercises for translation into English and into French, each with a suitable glossary. This little book, which one can easily carry about in a side pocket or reticule (since ladies no longer wear pockets), is self-contained and amply sufficient if thoroughly studied, and if the inflections be faithfully memorized, to qualify one for reading easy French prose; after which, a transition to the more idiomatic and sparkling style of the "Bouche'e de Pain" will be easy and natural. If, however, the student aims at the acquisition of a power of conversing in French, other means and instruments will be needed. We have reference here only to those who study French for literary purposes.

When our supposed student has mastered Delille's manual he can take up a more complete digest of the laws of French construction, as, for instance, the author's larger grammar; let him then conclude his course with "Litterature Francaise Classique" and "Litterature Francaise Contemporaine". The difference between these two works is very marked and very appropriate. The volume of classical literature contains few specimens. Such can be found everywhere; but it chiefly consists of elaborate critical articles on the genius and style of our best writers, and on the progress of our literature from its dawn to its culmination in the last century. The volume of contemporary literature, on the contrary, contains copious extracts from the leading writers of the 19th century, which could not be easily procured elsewhere in so small a compass, with only very short critical and biographical notices. We can not help wishing, however, that the editor had indulged us with somewhat ampler details concerning the writers, many of whose names have become household words.

T. E. S.

STODDARD'S RUDIMENTS OF ARITHMETIC, Embracing Mental and Written Exercises, for Beginners. By JOHN F. STODDARD, A.M., Author of a Series of Mathematical Arithmetics. New York: Sheldon & Company.

We have carefully compared this revised edition with the original work, published in 1863, and we find important additions and improvements, chiefly in those portions which have the most direct practical application to business affairs. We notice, for example, that the subject of "Bills" which was before condensed into two pages, is now enlarged to seven pages, including promissory notes. The number of practical examples in the ground rules and percentage is considerably increased, and there has also been added a full exposition of the Metric System of Weights and Measures. The design of this enlargement is to include in the work so much of arithmetic as is of practical application in the ordinary business affairs of life, and thus adapt it to the wants of a large majority of the pupils in the common schools. This has been done in such a manner as not to lesson the value of the book as a preparation for a more extensive study of the science.

We are pleased with the introduction of both mental and written questions, but we wish the idea was more thoroughly developed. In the first half of the book we find about ten pages of mental exercises. We also like the idea of introducing the contractions in Multiplication and Division at the close of the book. They are of no use to the the beginner, but are very valuable to the more advanced student. We know of no elementary work on arithmetic that contains a larger amount of excellent matter in so small a compass.

GRAMMATICAL DIAGRAMS DEFENDED AND IMPROVED, with Directions for their Proper Construction and Application; accompanied by a Comprehensive Outline of Classification and a Complete Scheme of Examples for Practice. By FREDERICK S. JEWELL, Ph. D., Author of "School Government." New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

Years ago, when in charge of a grammar school, we first saw Clark's Grammatical Diagrams. We adopted them as a means of illustrating the analysis of the different kinds of sentences, and found them valuable. We have since seen other systems of diagrams, some equally expressive and more beautiful, but, for some reason, we have not been able to use them with equal skill and success. We used the diagrams, as above stated, as visible illustrations, *as an aid to teaching*, and this we believe to be their true function. They may also be employed as convenient tests of the pupil's knowledge, or as an aid in securing a faithful preparation of the lesson, but, as a means of reaching the analysis of sentences, to be used by the learner, they are of doubtful utility; and for the simple reason that the analysis of a sentence must be clearly in mind *before* it can be represented by a diagram. The pupil reaches his diagram through the analysis and not the analysis through the diagram.

Teachers wishing to see this subject more fully discussed, are referred to the work whose title is given above. It is a defense and exposition of Clark's Grammatical Diagrams, with numerous examples for analysis and construction.

A NEW MANUAL OF THE ELEMENTS OF ASTRONOMY, Descriptive and Mathematical: Comprising the Latest Discoveries and Theoretic Views, with Directions for the Use of the Globes and for Studying the Constellations. By HENRY KIDDLE, A.M., Assistant Superintendent of Schools of New York. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1868.

This is an excellent manual, neither too comprehensive nor too meagre, too difficult nor too easy, but happily striking the golden mean. The plan adopted places the pupil, as far as possible, in the position of an actual observer, and guides him in the discovery and classification of a knowledge of the phenomena treated. The mathematical calculations are based on the recent determination of the Solar parallax, and involve only the elementary principles of arithmetic and geometry. The use of two sizes of type permits the introduction of brief historical sketches of the various discoveries and much other collateral information of great interest and value. Numerous problems for the globes are also thus placed in connection with the subjects to which they refer. The illustrations are numerous and appropriate, and the typography is worthy of high praise.

PARADISE LOST: A Poem in Twelve Books. By JOHN MILTON. A New Edition with Explanatory Notes. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1868.

This is a neat and serviceable edition of Paradise Lost, prepared under the advice and with the assistance of Professor Torrey, of Harvard University. It is provided with brief explanatory notes, introduced to throw light on points of mythology, history, and geography, and on nice or obscure turns of expression. The volume will prove very useful to a large class of persons who may wish to read critically this great poem and who have not the aid of numerous works of reference.

THE CONTINENTS: A Brief Description of their Physical Features. By A. VON STEINWEHR. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

This little book of seventy-two pages, is designed to accompany Mitchell's New Outline Maps. It is, as its title indicates, a concise and accurate description of the physical features of the great land-masses or continents. Teachers who wish to unite systematic oral instruction with their ordinary map exercises, will find it a capital hand-book.

A

Teacher's Guide to the Proper Use of the Spencerian Copy-Books and Charts. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1868.

This brochure of thirty-two pages gives condensed instruction on twenty-five topics connected with the teaching of writing. Teachers using the Spencerian System, will find it an excellent aid. It is *multum in parvo.*

The North American Review for April, Ticknor & Fields, Publishers, Boston, contains the following articles:

I. The Metropolitan Board of Health of New York, by Edward B. Dalton, M.D. II. The Church and Religion, by C. E. Norton—containing little truth and much error. III. Pompeii, by Prof. E. P. Evans. IV. Hegel, by J. E. Cabot. V. The Poor-Laws of New England, by F. B. Sanborn. VI. The Translation of the Veda, by Prof. W. D. Whitney. VII. Quotation and Originality, by R. W. Emerson. VIII. Boston (Second Paper), by Charles Francis Adams, Jr. IX. Western Policy in China, by Raphael Pumpelly. X. Expatriation and Naturalization, by J. T. Morse, Jr. XI. Shakespeare Once More, by James Russell Lowell. XII. Charles Dickens, by C. E. Norton. XIII. Critical Notices.

The Herald of Health.—Since this Journal of Physical Culture was placed under the editorial management of our friend and former townsman, Dr. Holbrook, it has rapidly grown in popularity. It is now the most readable and valuable magazine of its class in the country, and should find a place in every family. Miller & Wood, New York, Publishers. $2.00 per annum.

The Galaxy.—This well-established literary magazine has passed into the hands of Sheldon & Co., New York, who have enlarged it full fifty per cent., and otherwise greatly improved it. It is now the largest monthly magazine published in the country, and has a large and popular corps of contributors. It is finely illustrated by W. J. Linton. Price $4 a year.

The Friend.—Those of our readers who are more or less directly connected with the Society of Friends, will be pleased to hear that at Richmond, Ind., under the editorship of some of the professors and directors of the Quaker College of Earlham, a monthly magazine, "The Friend," is published. Besides several very interesting and well-written articles on various subjects, educational, philanthropic, etc., it contains accounts of Friends' Quarterly Meetings, and other labors by members of the Society, at home and abroad. This record can not fail to interest those who, though separated by distance from any Quaker community, retain undiminished love for their principles, and deeply sympathise with them in their unobtrusive, but wide-spread and persistent, labors of love. T. E. S.

Teacher of Penmanship.—We are glad to learn that this monthly paper is meeting with success. It is full of practical instruction respecting the teaching of writing, and is also very useful to the learner of the art. It is published by L. S. Thompson, Sandusky, O., at $1.00 a year.

Eldredge & Brother, of Philadelphia, have in press a new work, by Professor Hart, of the New Jersey State Normal School, entitled, "In the School-Room; or, Chapters on the Philosophy of Education." It will receive a cordial welcome to our table.

Wilson, Hinkle & Co.—Owing partly to impaired health, Mr. Sargent, the senior member of the well-known firm of Sargent, Wilson & Hinkle, has retired, and the firm of Wilson, Hinkle & Co., has been organized. The new firm makes its bow to the public by announcing two new text-books. This looks like business.

☞ Our advertising pages are specially interesting this month.

THE

OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY:

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GRAMMATICAL VALUE OF THE DISCRIMINATION BETWEEN THOUGHT AND THE OBJECT OF THOUGHT.

BY PROF. HENRY N. DAY, NEW HAVEN, CT.

In all thought there are conjoined two elements—thinking and that of which we think. They are contrasted as subject and object. The one is internal, subjective; the other is external, objective.

This is the deepest, broadest, most radical, most important discrimination that can be found in concrete thought. All diversities of the forms of thought, and equally all diversities of the forms of the objects of thought, are subordinate to this first fundamental distinction between thought itself and its object, and are of lower rank and importance.

The expression of thought contains the same distinction, which clearly must be ranked in that equally as in pure thought as prior to all others, deeper than all others, paramount to all others. For that there can be perfect expression of thought in which the paramount distinctions of the thought itself are obscured or confounded, is a supposition involving the worst absurdity.

On *a priori* grounds, therefore, we are driven to the conclusion that to ignore or to confound this distinction in the expositions of the nature of language, in proper grammatical science, must be so far fatal.

Nor is this necessary conclusion at all forbidden by the fact that of these two elements in all concrete thought the subjective element, the thinking element, is often left unexpressed, is to be supplied by the mind addressed, wants often proper, peculiar form for its expression; that it finds great difficulty in entering into recognizable forms of language. From the very necessities of the case, the forms of thought can be communicated only through objects of thought, for communication between human spirits can be only through sensible media—through external objects. But this by no means hinders the borrowing of forms of expression originally appropriated to objects of thought for the expression of the forms of thought itself. This is just as natural, just as legitimate as the use of forms originally appropriated to objects for the expression of modifications of objects—the noun is necessarily prior to the adjective, the attribute to the adverb. The proper speech-form for the thought-element, however, comes sooner or later into language—and enables us to discriminate it from the object of thought. Of the first importance is it, that this speech-form proper to the thought-element should be recognized in all its various modifications. Only so can language be explained and accurately interpreted; only so can there be a true science of language—a perfect grammar.

An examination of these various modifications of the form which this thought-element takes in language, will serve to corroborate this *a priori* conclusion, and also to illustrate its significance and importance.

The thought-element in speech appears in its purest form in the so called *copula*. This term properly denotes the form in language in which the relation between the subject and the attribute is expressed. This relation is primitively a mere identification of one object of thought, which, when standing in this relation, is known as subject, with another object of thought here recognized as attribute—is either an identification of such objects of thought or the contrary, or, as it may be, a balancing of thought between these opposites. It is expressed accordingly in one or the other of the three different forms of the sentence—the affirmative, the negative, and the interrogative. The negative is distinguished from the affirmative sentence by the particle of negation, *not*. It is clear that this particle relates to the thought element, not to the attribute or predicate. In the sentence: "The act is not right," the particle *not* modifies the copula *is*, not the predicate *right*. Indeed, negation has no place in the real and the objective, only in thought—the subjective. It is only by accommodation that we in speech use proper negatives in expressing the real; for there negation is but opposition. There is no proper negative of the *right;* the *not right* is but the *wrong*, which is as positive as its opposite the *right.* If accordingly in the sentence given, we refer the modifier *not* to the predicate we express a very different thought; instead of a negative, the sentence becomes a positive. The subject of the sentence, *the act*, is in this case referred to the class *opposed to the right;* that is, is referred to the *wrong.* The notion of voluntariness is added to the subject of the sentence—*act* is conceived specifically as a moral act of which rightness or wrongness must be predicated, not generically as including both the voluntary and the involuntary. We speak of the *non ego* applying the negative to an object; but *non ego* is still real; it is the opposite of *ego*, its proper and entire complement. If *ego* represents a positive, viz.: *conscious subject*, then *non ego* equally represents a positive, *object of consciousness;* the two are complements of each other; and being fully and exclusively complementary of each other, they are opposites. There is one fact in language which seems irreconcilable with this view: The negative adjective *no*, *none*, is joined to an object, we say "no one is there"; "nothing is there"; we say in the same way "not a thing is there." But it is plain that this is one of those many cases in language in which the expression only approximates to the thought,—points to it rather than fully reaches and grasps it. The negative is transferred from the copula to which it properly belongs to the object. So language properly symbolizes, shadows, addresses the imagination, presents a picture, a form, gives a hint; never holds forth the mere thought, that and no more and no less. Literally to affirm "nothing is there," is absurd, inconceivable. Who can think nothing?

Although, as has been remarked already, the modifications of the thought-element came later and less easily into language than modifications of the object of thought, and for the most part through these, yet this primary modification seems to have made its appearance in language in its earliest stages, and originally through a sound that must have been as purely conventional as any thing in language. It is only surprising that the sign of negation should have been so generally the same, suggesting the inquiry whether there be not some natural association between the nasal consonant *n* and negation in thought.

To any such inquiry, however, it seems impossible to give any satisfactory answer.

In fact, we find in the very earliest stages of language, and in its rudest forms even, three distinct kinds of words which must have had each a peculiar and distinctive origin : the sign of negation, which stands by itself, and is grounded in the thought to be expressed; the pronominal words which are grounded in the act of speaking, as implying a person speaking, a person spoken to, and an object spoken of; and, thirdly, the proper object words, including both subject words and predicate words. Of these three classes of elements, the first two, the copula-modifying elements and the pronominal elements, may or may not originate in words originally denoting objects of thought, whether subjects or attributes; while, as a matter of history, only the mark of negation among the copula-modifiers seems to have a purely conventional origin and are not derived from an object-word, while the pronominal elements are chiefly of independent origin. and are not from object-elements.

Passing to other copula modifiers, we shall find the significance and importance of this discrimination between the thought-elements and the object-elements appearing still more impressively in the inflected modifications of the copula—the proper mood-forms of grammar. In the first place, it is necessary that there should be a distinct recognition of the fact that grammatical mood pertains exclusively and ever to the copula, and is therefore separated by the broadest grammatical distinction from the tense-modification as well as from all other mere predicate modifications. If the proper practice of grammatical science be to exhibit the significance of the inflected form as well as the principal form itself, if grammar should be any thing more than a collection of paradigms, it must set forth prominently and commandingly this radical distinction between the inflectional forms which express copula-modifications and those which show modifications of the predicate. In fact, it is a most serious defect in our grammars generally, that they do not fix the attention of the learner directly on the radical diversity in significance in the different classes of the inflected forms of the verb. It would clear his way of great difficulty and confusion, if he were taught at the outset that some of these inflections, as those of number and person, express no thought whatever, and serve merely to show to what subject the verb refers; and that, of the other inflections, one class, the mood-inflections, serve only to modify the copula, while the other class, the tense-inflections, pertain exclusively to the attribute. The whole work of interpretation would go on in vastly greater ease and assurance and satisfaction in the full light of this recognized distinction. Difficulties in interpretation otherwise insuperable, would often entirely disappear; and groping would become clear vision. To illustrate this in a single particular: In order to express the copula as modified by contingence, an object-form, to wit, the past-tense form, is borrowed in many languages; thus, in English, we find such expressions as these: "That *were* against me"; "O that thou *wert* as my brother"; "*Would* God it *were* even"; "I *had* as lief not be as live to be in awe of such a thing as I myself"; "Brutus *had* rather be a villager." The proper imperfect forms here, *were*, *wert*, *would*, and *had*, express no past-tense or time; have no reference to the predicate, but only to the copula modifying that as contingent. The objections by grammarians and critics to such forms as "I had rather be", "had rather have", used by the best writers from Chaucer down, could hardly have arisen had this distinction between the copula-modifications and proper predicate-modifications been recognized, together with the fact that the forms expressing the latter are freely borrowed in language to express the former.

(*To be concluded next month.*)

DRAWING IN UNGRADED SCHOOLS.

BY PROF. W. H. YOUNG.*

Having already (in MONTHLY for May) spoken of drawing as a branch of primary instruction, I now offer a word as to its feasibility, means, and methods in ungraded schools.

A great point in ungraded schools is to save time; hence one's first thought is against introducing a new study. But if drawing can be made to *save* time, it ought to meet with favor.

A growing fault of our schools is their bent toward theoretical and their lack of practical teaching; wherefore, if drawing be taught, the teaching should be real.

There is in the ungraded school, especially for younger pupils, a lack of common interest in study, and hence a loss of power, for want of general or concert exercises; whence drawing should be made, in part, at least, a general exercise with oral teaching.

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* Ohio University, Athens, O.

As drawing is not likely, for some time, at least, to meet with much favor from patrons of ungraded schools, and materials will hardly be furnished, the teacher will need to depend for these upon his own resources, and must arrange his methods accordingly.

These thoughts indicate such means and methods as, while economizing time, admit of object teaching, oral instruction, concert exercises, and free use of slate, pencil, and blackboard. On the successful application of such means and methods turns the question of the *feasibility* of introducing drawing into ungraded schools.

Let each pupil furnish himself with two (round, square, or narrow) foot rules marked in inches. The use of some such standard of length, made quite familiar, is helpful many ways. It should always accompany arithmetical, geographical, and geometrical instruction, and be in frequent use in object teaching.

Let the teacher set apart three to five minutes next after each recess for a concert exercise in drawing. Children come in from play excited in blood and spirits, unfit and unable to apply themselves at once to either recitation or study; indeed, are harmed by the effort; for both mind and body, at this time, need a moment not, perhaps, of inaction, but of gentler exercise to tone them down to the *study* state. There is here, then, no time lost; but, really, time and something else is gained.

Let the teacher, immediately on calling to order after recess, take a rule by the middle between the thumb and fore-finger of his right hand, and holding it vertically opposite his face, direct each pupil, standing at or near his seat, to do likewise,—the teacher correcting every fault until all are in proper position. Let him now, by whatever art he can use, call attention to the simple notion of the *direction* of the rulers, always using and multiplying the most familiar terms and illustrations; as, "Straight up and down"; "Like a tree when it grows right"; "Like a boy when he stands right", etc. Let him next, while all are still in position, tell them, with what address he can command, that their rulers are VER-TI-CAL. The newness of the word will make an impression. Its repetition by the teacher, school, individuals, with the various changes that may be rung upon it, will *fix* the impression. Give a moment's rest, then repeat the exercise with the left hand, calling upon pupils to correct each other's faults of direction; give additional examples, always using the proper term; as, "John's ruler is not *vertical*"; "The door frame is *vertical*"; "Growing wheat stalks are *vertical*", etc. Next, after a moment's rest, let both hands be used, first a foot apart, then half a foot, then quarter of a foot, then two feet, a foot and a half,—the rule being the standard and the teacher the model. As a closing exercise, the teacher may explain that by *Right*, he means the ruler in the right hand; by *Left*, the ruler in the left hand; by *Vertical*, the direction just explained; by *Rest*, dropping the hand to the side. Then tell them to get into *vertical* position, arms *vertical*, and at word of command repeat and act after him with promptness and spirit, each time accompanying the command with its execution: *Right!* VERTICAL!! *Right!* REST!! *Left!* VERTICAL!! *Left!* REST!! *Right* and *Left!* VERTICAL!! *Right* and *Left!* REST!! One foot apart, *Right* and *Left!* VERTICAL!! etc.

Finally, let him draw upon the blackboard, to remain for the day, a distinct vertical line, write vertical under it, and pronounce the lesson ended.

The above is enough for one lesson. It fixes one valuable idea, and gives its proper name. It sets the thoughts to work. It should not occupy more than three or four minutes. It forms a pleasing and profitable transition from the boisterousness and excitement of the play-ground to the quiet and composure needed for study. The whole school may take part in it: it *is* really the *first lesson* in the *Art of Drawing.*

But it stops not here. Let the little ones be put at once to making *vertical* lines on their slates after a copy two inches long. When the writing exercise comes (all should write at the same time), let it be introduced by a brief slate exercise in *vertical* lines two inches long,—of course without the ruler. In geography call special attention to *vertical* lines and directions on the map. For this day, even in reading, grammar, and spelling exercises, the *vertical* line may be introduced, not, of course, pursuing it *ad nauseam*, or to distraction from the matter properly in hand. I am only pointing out what *may*, not what *must*, or in all cases need be done. Even in arithmetic, after *verticals*, *horizontals*, and *parallels* have been treated, these things should be kept in mind in drawing lines and writing numbers. So much for *one* lesson and its applications.

Next day let the *horizontal* be introduced, and treated in the same manner, always holding to the simplest definitions and commonest illustrations. Then *oblique* lines, then parallels, the right angle, the square, rectangle, obtuse angle, acute angle, triangle with its commoner forms, circle with its several parts, ellipse, etc., until the elements of form shall have been familiarly and yet thoroughly treated. The youngest pupils may not be able to follow so far, but all the rest may, with interest and profit.

Of course, after the elements shall have been thus passed over (in, say, five or six weeks)—and I mean, when I say "passed over", so thoroughly taught and learned that all, except the very youngest, are familiar with the terms and somewhat skilled in execution on the slate at least, or better if on paper—the oral exercises as here indicated will have lost their interest as well as profit. But as this point may come in as an oral exercise, the analysis of forms comprising the whole range of familiar objects, and affording an unlimited field for object teaching; while the slate or paper exercise may be extended to the combination of these elements into drawings of the objects under analysis.

This paper is long enough already, or I should be glad to present the latter subject more fully, as it is here, in fact, the deeper interest and higher advantage begins. It might make the theme of another article. But to go no farther, is there not enough here to show the advantage and feasibility of drawing in ungraded schools? Let the little readers *make* their letters while they *learn* them, draw *cat* and *dog* and *book* and *box* when they spell them; let the writers help their writing with their drawing; let the map-drawers have some adequate notion of what they are doing to delight more in and profit more by it; and let eye and hand and mind be trained, and all be taught, even only *so far*, a better control and higher use of themselves, and is there not good in it? At least, is not the whole matter worthy of more attention and a more thorough discussion than it commonly gets at teachers' institutes and among school men?

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THE spreading recognition of drawing as an element of education, is one amongst many signs of the more rational views on mental culture now beginning to prevail. Teachers are, at length, adopting the course which nature has for ages been pressing upon their notice.—*Herbert Spencer.*

TRUE EDUCATION.

BY M. L. HOLBROOK, M.D.*

Will there ever be any end to the discussion of the subject of education? For our part, we hope not. It is a theme which lies near to the heart of all civilized people. It has more to do with the life and growth, or decay, of races, than all other subjects. In the broadest aspect that we can look at it, it includes all that goes to make human life any thing above the life of the animal. It reaches into the physical, the intellectual, and the moral nature. In the long ages past, since man has lived on this globe, true education has been hardly possible, for it implies a state of society more perfect than the world had attained.

But we are beginning to see daylight on this subject, and it will not, in all probability, be many generations before an educated person will not be one fitted only for some profession, business, or successful career, but it will mean one trained and disciplined for true manhood or true womanhood; which includes all those elements that secure honesty, industry, and the spirit of progress. In a recent letter from that great literary artist and critic, whose writings have done so much to infuse a healthy tone in art and literature, John Ruskin, the germ of a true education is distinctly set forth. He says:

> "I am wearier than any tenant of Wearyfaulds of seeing this subject of education always treated as if it only meant teaching children to write, to cipher, or to repeat catechism. You know, sir, as you have shown by your comments on the Bishop of Oxford's last speech on this subject, and you could not at present use your influence more beneficially than by further showing that real education—the education which alone should be compulsory—means nothing of the kind. *It means teaching children to be clean, active, honest, and useful.* All these characters can be taught, and can not be acquired by sickly and ill-dispositioned children without being taught; but they can be untaught to any extent by evil habit and example at home. Public schools, in which the aim was to form character faithfully, would return the children intrusted to them in due time to their parents, worth more than their 'weight in gold.' Will you not make some effort, sir, to get your readers to feel this? I am myself quite sick of saying it over and over again.
>
> "I am, sir, your faithful servant,
>
> "JOHN RUSKIN."

How much meaning there is in these four words—clean, active, honest, useful. Education means teaching children to be clean, or free from filth and all that pollutes; free from all physical and moral defects and deformities; free from defilement and all that is injurious; free from awkwardness and clumsiness; not bungling, but skillful, dexterous, sound, athletic; free from bonds, restraint, limitation; free from moral defilement; pure, beautiful, clean. Education means teaching the young to be active, full of life and motion, engaged in healthful labor, humble, lively, energetic, and to be busy, diligent, practical; to produce results; to be operative and thoughtful; to be the opposite of lazy, indolent, and passive; to keep things moving; to have the fire filled with irons, and to strike them while they are hot. Education means teaching the pupil to be honest, decent, honorable, upright, unimpeachable, good; to deal fairly with others; to be free from trickery, fraud, lying, cheating; teaching them to act justly, wisely, correctly; to be frank, sincere, unreserved; to have the motives of life proceed from principle and sincerity, and to have them directed toward good objects; to be chaste, faithful, and virtuous.

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*Editor Herald of Health, New York.

And again, education means teaching students to be useful, full of profit, productive, beneficent; working for some valuable end, answering some good purpose; to bear fruit, and not to be unserviceable, loitering, insufficient, and without occupation, but serving the day and the generation in which they live, and leaving the world better for having been a member of the great human family.

Mr. Ruskin might have added two words to his list of subjects to be taught in the process of education. We mean the words *brave* and *wise.* These characteristics make a better foundation for character than can be secured in any of our schools. Who does not admire bravery—the man of noble courage, of fearlessness, and daring, who is not afraid to strike out into unknown paths, to think in new channels, to investigate difficult and perplexing subjects, and to overcome great obstacles, and who is at the same time full of knowledge, enlightened, capable of discerning the good from the bad, and the true from the false; who is able to choose the best ends, and the best way of accomplishing them is the one before whom all bow with respect and adoration. Let us, in our efforts to improve our educational systems, look more to these things, and less to trivial accomplishments, or such acquisitions of learning as are fashionable, or allow us to pass for what we are not. We have already too much of this sort of education, and its effects are plainly seen in characters proficient and useful in nothing.

ABOUT TWO WHEELS.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, O.

"H. M. T.—'How many revolutions on its own axis will a wheel make in rolling once around a fixed wheel of the same size?' One."—*Scientific American*, June 1, 1867.

This answer was called in question by four correspondents in the issue of July 20, 1867. A correspondent in the issue of Feb. 1, 1868, gives a diagram to show that the answer *one* was wrong, and that the proper answer is *two*. The subject was again resumed Feb. 15, and has continued every week up to March 28. More than fifty letters have been published, and twenty-one diagrams have been given. It is stated that five hundred letters have been received on the subject. Probably no little question ever proposed in this country has caused so many tea-table, fireside, workshop, and newspaper discussions. It appears to have assumed all the subtlety of a metaphysical question. I conceive that all ought to agree as to what is the correct answer, if the terms of the question were distinctly defined and the conditions full stated.

1. What is an axis? *Answer:* Mathematically an axis is the mathematical straight line on which a magnitude rotates, or around which its parts are symmetrically arranged.

2. What is rotation? *Answer:* It is the turning of a magnitude on its axis.

3. What is revolution? *Answer:* Revolution as distinguished from rotation is the progressive motion of a magnitude around another magnitude or distant point. We speak of the revolution of a planet around the sun and its rotation on its axis.

These definitions warrant a change of the question to "How many rotations on its own axis will a wheel make in revolving once around a fixed wheel of the same size?"

Now for the conditions:

1. Shall the wheels be in the same or in different planes?

2. Shall the centre of the rotating and revolving wheel be distant from the centre of the fixed wheel, the sum of their radii; that is, shall the circumferences of the wheels touch each other externally, or shall the distance between the centres be greater than the sum of their radii? This question is based upon the condition that the wheels are in the same plane.

Let us so answer these questions that the question shall be, "How many rotations on its own axis will a wheel make in revolving once around a fixed wheel of the same size, provided that the wheels shall be in the same plane and touch each other externally?"

Before proceeding to answer this question, let us decide what is meant by one rotation of a wheel on its axis. When the axis is stationary, one rotation is completed when each radius of the wheel has moved through the angular space of four right angles. Let us now suppose that the wheel has a motion of translation in its own plane, thus producing a lateral motion of the axis, so that its lines of position shall always be parallel to one another. Now it seems to me that it is no more proper to consider that the axis has a rotary motion when thus moved laterally, than when it has no translatory motion. This position being granted, we have the same answer as to what is a complete rotation of the wheel on its axis when the axis has a parallel lateral motion as when it is stationary. We are now prepared to answer the question, "How many rotations on its own axis will a wheel make in revolving around a fixed wheel of the same size, provided that the wheels shall be in the same plane and touch each other externally?" *Answer:* Two.

If a hole is bored in the centre of the revolving wheel and an axle is inserted, and that axle is so restrained that it shall have no rotary motion, there will have been two rotations of the revolving wheel on the axle on the completion of one revolution about the fixed wheel. If the axle shall be so restrained that the same side of it shall be always directed to the centre of the fixed wheel there will be one rotation of the axle, and two of the wheel on their common axis, or the wheel will rotate once more than the axle.

By restraining the axle in different ways, different answers would be required as to the number of rotations the wheel will make in reference to its axle, but not as to the number it makes on its axis, which is always two. The *Scientific American* in its first and modest argument in July, 1867, seemed to comprehend the real point, but on the renewal of the discussion became muddled by the strong arguments adduced for two rotations, and more stubborn in contending for its original answer. None of those who have stoutly contended on the side of the *American*, seem to understand the point at issue. It will be observed that I have given no demonstration of the correctness of the assertions above made. I have preferred to leave the question to the consideration of the readers of the MONTHLY.

PROFESSIONAL NOTES.

I. ON TARDINESS.

The "excuse system", as it is commonly called, for overcoming the evil of tardiness, has its advantages and disadvantages; but, in schools constituted as mine are, it seems to me that the latter are greatly in excess.

Having made and watched with great interest experiments on this subject, I ask the indulgence of my readers while I give a few of the results.

My schools are in a town of four thousand or five thousand inhabitants; consist of eight grades, and are patronized by "*patres*" not above the average in the matter of appreciation of their duties to the public schools. When I commenced working with them, I was told that tardy attendance was a disease bidding fair dangerously to encroach on the general health of the schools. I had good evidence that it was true in the shape of a "store-box" nearly full of "written excuses" for tardiness,—over eight thousand having been given during the preceding year. (I have serious doubts concerning the use of that "during", and tremblingly await W. D. H.) One teacher whom I know, was in the habit of adorning his room upon "examination day" with festoons made by stringing them upon a thread. During this time no record was kept of the amount of *time* lost by tardy pupils.

The plan works itself out in just about this way: The scholar after receiving from his parents the precious document, cares not at what time he may reach the school-room, believing that the "Please excuse John", which he holds in his hand, is or ought to be perfectly satisfactory to his teacher, whether he be one minute or one hour late. Instances will occur to many who have used this method, in which pupils have written their own excuses; and I have heard of a man on Main street, who made the furnishing these "passes" to tardy boys and girls a specialty in his business.

I commenced by throwing the whole system overboard. I instructed the teachers to inform their pupils that we considered their tardiness a serious evil, no less to our school than to themselves, and that no piece of paper could possibly excuse the offense. In any case of repeated or prolonged tardiness, the parents are immediately informed, and if continued, our remedy

—to which, by the way, we have never yet been obliged to resort—is suspension. Each teacher makes a weekly report to me of the total amount of time lost in her school by tardiness—and to show the working of our plan I will add, that for the first few weeks the total amount in all the grades was more than forty hours per week, but we have gradually and surely cut it down until it now varies from eighteen minutes to three hours. We have in this thing obtained a good quantity and quality of that very desirable *esprit de corps*, and our pupils feel a commendable amount of "school pride" in the matter.

Let me also add, that the true policy in regard to tardiness, I take to be that set forth in the MONTHLY for February, by Mr. Cowdery. His revised Art. VI is, in my mind, the thing. The difficulty lies in securing its passage by our Boards.

And now, as I believe in the "give and take" doctrine, I wish some one would tell us how to secure a high per cent. of attendance in our public schools; that is, I mean, by any other method than "cyphering it out."

II. CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

I desire to call the attention of teachers to the great importance of the study of this much abused document, in our common schools. Let any of my readers go into the highest class or grade of his school, and propose a few simple questions pertaining to the Constitution and Government, and I think it will result, as it did with me, in devoting a few weeks to the consideration of the subject. In the highest grade I have given about twenty minutes each day for three weeks, to reading and familiar conversation upon the subject. Each pupil had a copy of the Constitution before him, and we asked questions and talked with each other in an informal manner about it,—many of them became greatly interested, and nearly all were attentive listeners to a sort of running commentary which I kept up until we had finished. A few days since, I examined the school upon the subject, and the result satisfied me as to the value of the exercise. The average age of the pupils is not above fifteen years. I proposed to them twenty questions pertaining to the method of passing laws; the veto power; manner of electing the President; the Supreme Court; process of amending the Constitution; meaning of "Habeas Corpus", etc. The answers to these questions were very creditable,—a number of the pupils having correctly given eighty, eighty-five, and ninety per cent. of them.

In conducting an exercise of this kind, Alden's little "Text-book on Government" for common schools, noticed in the MONTHLY a short time since, would be a valuable auxiliary. It is not necessary that this matter be left until the third or fourth year of the advanced high-school course, which the majority of pupils never reach, before it can be successfully handled.

III. A SUGGESTION.

And nothing new or original either, but simply this: I do not think a teacher can spend ten minutes each day in a more profitable manner than in reading the daily paper to his pupils. Many children attending public schools never have an opportunity of reading a good daily paper, and a very much larger number never do read one. The teacher can make such selections from dispatches, items of interest, etc., as will keep his young listeners informed of the doings, progress, and condition of the great live world about them. The plan has been tried with signal success at the State Institution for the Blind, by its most excellent Superintendent, Dr. Lord. An experiment will show conclusively that it will materially contribute to the growth of general intelligence, the mental strength and culture of our young Americans.

Middletown, *O.*, April, 1868. T. C. M.

THE CLASS ROOM.

INTEREST—LESSON III.

The class being called, solutions are first in order. A pupil rises, reads the question from his slate, explains each step in the work, and finally answers the question. As: "'What is the interest of \$1200 for 1 year 7 months, at 6 per cent.?' The interest of \$1200 for 2 months is \$12; for 1 year and 6 months, which are 18 months, it is nine times \$12 = \$108. But the interest for 1 month is one-half the interest for 2 months or one-half of \$12 = \$6, and the interest for 19 months, or 1 year 7 months, is \$108 + \$6 = \$114.

If thought desirable, the answer may now be put in the form of a conclusion: "Therefore, the interest of \$1200 for 1 year and 7 months at 6 per cent., is \$114."

No pupil is allowed to proceed without stating the conditions of the problem in the form of a question. It is very desirable that the pupil should have no other means of discovering the answer to a problem than his own work. If he can not work the examples, it is due to him that the fact should be made to appear, in order that he may be instructed. I always advise my pupils not to compare their work before coming to class, as thereby a part of the interest which they would feel in the lesson is lost. I am afraid, however, that there is a certain class of pupils who never take this advice. As long as the pupil feels quite uncertain of the correctness of his results, he will usually seek help from some source.

Having solved all the examples, and, if possible, given each pupil one example at least, we proceed to consider the legal rate of interest—its necessity; States in which the legal rate of interest is other than 6 per cent.; the time at which interest on a note begins, determined by the wording of the note; negotiable notes—transfers, responsibility of indorsers; the number of days in a month, etc.

How to obtain the interest for days: 1st. When the number of days is an aliquot part of 60 days, or 2 months. What part of the interest for 2 months or 60 days is interest for 30 days? For 20 days? 15 days? 12 days? 10 days? 6 days? 5 days? 4 days? 3 days? 2 days? 1 day?

We now work a few examples, in which the number of days is an aliquot part of 60. These solved by volunteers, the years and months of another example may be dictated, and an answer required, then read the days, their number not being an aliquot part of 60—say, 9—and ask the class how to get the interest for that time. Perhaps some one may suggest that 9 days = 6 days + 3 days, and that the interest for 6 days = $\frac{1}{10}$ of the interest for 60 days, and that 3 days interest is $\frac{1}{2}$ of 6 days interest. This being pronounced correct, we put upon the board the proper form of writing it, and call for a solution. After one or more similar examples, we ask how to obtain aliquot parts of 60 from such numbers as 7, 8, 11, 13, 14, etc.

The rest of the time is spent in working examples and hearing volunteer solutions. For first solutions we call on the best pupil that offers. We do not too highly praise him. He does not need praise. We merely say cordially, that the solution is a good one. When the poorer class of pupils begin to raise their hands confidently, we call on them; if they do well, they receive their meed of praise, and at any rate they are treated with kindness and sympathy. These poor fellows must not be allowed to fail.

The direction to put every thing on the slate is peremptory. We place a model on the board, and pass around examining the slates while the work is going on, and find no difficulty in inducing pupils to follow the model.

MODEL.

Int. $144.24 2y. 3m. 19 da. @ 6 per cent. ?

	$1.4424	= Int. 2mo.
	13	
	4.3272	
	14.424	
	$18.7512	= " 2y. 2m.
1mo. = $\frac{1}{2}$ of 60 da....	.7212	= " 1m.
15da. = $\frac{1}{4}$ " ...	.3606	= " 15da.
3da. = $\frac{1}{20}$ " ...	.0721	= " 3da.
1da......................	.0240	= " 1da.
	$19.9291	= Int. 2y. 3m. 19da. at 6 per cent.

The examples assigned for the next lesson are all at 6 per cent. and for years, months and days.

LESSON IV.

Solutions as before. Joint notes—form, principals and securities, liabilities of makers; forgery—its nature, effect, punishment, punishment under old English law; infamous crimes, capital crimes. These topics are treated as usual by questioning, and not by lecturing. It is highly important that pupils be taught the nature of crime. In morals, as in other things, great distinctions come before small. Let the pupil first be taught to abhor infamous crimes, and there may be hope that he will learn in time to look in the same way upon the petty meanness and selfishness which rob every day life of its charms Minor morals are ignored because *major* morals are not understood, or are misunderstood.

In this lesson we teach the pupil to work examples in which the rate is other than 6 per cent. Let an example at five or seven per cent. be worked through at 6 per cent., and call attention to the fact that the answer is 6 per cent. of the principal for the given time. How can we obtain 1 per cent? If we now add the 1 per cent. and 6 per cent., what will we have? If we subtract? Do not allow the pupil to draw a line between dividend and divisor. A few questions will show how to find 4 per cent., 8 per cent., and 10 per cent. of the principal for the given time.

The pupil is now able to work any question in interest, and should have numerous exercises with critical solutions, for several days.

CONCLUSION.

It will be observed that we propose to teach interest, not in one lesson, but in many, and not in many ways, but in one, and that one way the best known to us. Whatever advantages and attractions any other method may present in special cases, we would ignore them till such time as the pupil prove himself thoroughly conversant with this method.

We conceive our method of teaching to be based on the following principles:

1. All true knowledge is a growth.
2. Growth must be gradual.
3. Knowledge of the unknown comes either by perception, that is, through the senses, or by reasoning.
4. Reasoning being the highest act of the human mind, and necessarily involving accurate perception, is the latest in development.
5. Children in school are unused to reason, and are incapable of understanding a chain of reasoning, but must be led as we do infants learning to walk, with great care, step by step, giving time to balance themselves after each, and assure themselves in their new position.
6. *Action* is the best means of arousing both perception and reflection. Children learn by *doing*.

Marion, O. W. W.

MEASURES FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

SYCAMORE TOWNSHIP, HAMILTON CO., O., *May* 2, 1868.

HON. E. E. WHITE—*Dear Sir:* May I be permitted to make a suggestion for your consideration?

Much has been said in reports of our State Superintendents and by Teachers' Institutes favoring "County Superintendents." While I would not oppose this movement, or any other that looks to the improvement of our schools, I am disposed to doubt whether even by this near approach to a responsible head, the people, the teachers and scholars will obtain what is desired.

A county superintendent can at most be a receiving head,—a distributor by circular letters of instruction to teachers, directors, etc. He can not in most of our counties pass annually even one day in each of the schools under his care. We have in this county, say (I only estimate), exclusive of Cincinnati, not less than three hundred teachers employed in as many departments, with not over two hundred scholastic days. It would be impossible for one person to visit each department within the year. A county superintendent may be useful as the head of county and township institutes, as chief of a statistical bureau, as the man orator on public occasions, as the advisory head on courses of instruction, school books, etc.—holding the same general relations to the county that the State superintendent does to the State; he can not reach, hold, and direct the great public pulse.

My suggestion is:

1. The union of townships—country and town,—as an educational body, to be organized with the same powers as the board of education in Cincinnati; trustees elected from the several school districts, holding office for a term of years (not more than two from each district),—all to be members of the township board,—required to hold meetings not less often than one each month.
2. Teachers to be employed by the month or scholastic year; the law to declare that the scholastic month shall be twenty-one days—twenty days' instruction in the school, one day's attendance on the township institute: absence from either, for any cause, to work deduction, in ratio, of salary.
3. Township institutes to be organized under direction of the board of education, to be composed of teachers, directors, parents, and advanced scholars; these institutes to meet monthly, alternating from district to district.
4. Township boards shall be required by its own committee to visit each school quarterly: and to elect a superintendent, either in its chairman, clerk, or some other person, who shall be required to visit each school not less than once each month.
5. Township boards shall be required to grade each school,—so to arrange districts that there shall be an enumeration sufficient for a school of not less than two departments.
6. County examiners to be appointed from and residents within the territory for which they may examine teachers.
7. Teachers shall be required to pass examination—primary and intermediate departments—in what is now required for our

common schools; those employed in higher departments, in what is required for high schools.

8. Township boards to have power to levy tax sufficient to meet expenses, on the basis suggested.

9. Members of board of education to serve gratuitously; superintendent to have a salary not exceeding —— dollars per day for each day actually in attendance examining schools.

10. Township boards to prepare and publish each year a report.

We have complaints from our State Superintendent annually, in regard to the condition of country schools. Why these complaints? Does the Superintendent know any thing really of the country schools? Has the Superintendent within the past ten years, probably longer, visited a country school? Has he not limited or extended his visits only to the large cities and county towns?

Has our Legislature given us any positive, favorable law for the country? Has it not rather so legislated, by independent districts, as to take from the country its strength? So soon as we have an aggregated population and wealth within a given territory, it is withdrawn from the township organization, and to these special strong districts greater power and privileges are extended than are permitted to the less populated and less wealthy districts.

The causes of weakness in our country schools are obvious—clearly to be seen on our statute books. We should have less of complaint and more of positive effort,—less comment on defects and more practical exertion to remedy.

Our *High School* law for the country is a practical growing wrong to townships. While these give great advantages to the youth in the immediate neighborhood where located, at the same time, by reason of distance, the great majority can not be profited: to support high schools you must weaken the district school.

It is entirely competent to make every district school of the grade of high schools—to place within the reach of every child an education equal to that of most of our academies.

We have in this township two schools (district) educating youth in the higher branches. We have sent out teachers from them holding rank with those who come from our colleges. In one of these schools we shall pass out classes this year who have completed higher arithmetic and algebra, plane and solid geometry, natural philosophy, Latin grammar and reader, and a class that has made progress in botany. These scholars will pass creditable examinations with classes from Miami, Athens, or Denison Universities. In this same school we expect to organize classes the ensuing year in still higher mathematics, to continue Latin, etc. This school has but two departments.

While we are doing this, we are connected with a Board that can not levy a rate of tax the same as the little villages in our vicinity.

Let our legislators not fear the people of the country; let them not withhold but extend power to the people; let them not so legislate that the few only can be educated, and hold the great mass in profound ignorance, or confine them within the limits of "reading, writing, and arithmetic."

Very truly,

THOMAS SPOONER.

A METHOD OF TEACHING SPELLING.

I have the pupils well drilled in the sounds of the letters, accent, silent letters, and in all the marks found in the spelling-book. The pupils in the less advanced class print or write a half-lesson at a time, having two lessons each day, and using slates to write on. They are required to observe closely *all* the marks found in the lesson, and to print or write the words just as they find them in the book. Silent letters are underscored to distinguish them, as it is very difficult for pupils to italicize silent letters.

When called on to recite, each pupil takes his place in the class, and No. 1 pronounces, spells (from the slate), and again pronounces the first word, and, if correctly done, No. 2 takes the next word. If No. 1 fails either to pronounce or spell, or repronounce the word, or to note the silent and marked letters by repeating them, it passes to No. 2, who takes the same course, and if he corrects it in every particular, he takes his place *above* No. 1, who tries the *next* word; and so on until No. 1 properly disposes of a word. Then all below him who have tried a word and *failed*, try until they succeed.

No pupil who has missed a word is passed, until he recites correctly, in every particular. Those who correct words that have been missed, go above those missing, and the one standing at the head of the class in the evening, takes his place at the foot the next day, to take his chances for the place at the head again. I always require the pupil to have his lesson properly written before he is entitled to his regular recreation, and I seldom have to detain a pupil a single minute.

The exercise of printing or writing the lesson, and the examining of the words to detect any mistake in spelling, accenting, or marking of silent letters, together with the pronouncing, spelling, and repronouncing, and the repetition of the word and the silent letters, fix the lesson indelibly upon the mind, and the benefit is otherwise much greater than is secured by simply studying the lesson from the book. I have found that pupils improve faster in spelling, pronouncing, and reading by this method than by any other method known to me. I have not a single pupil in my primary class who can not give the sounds of every letter in the alphabet, with its number, nearly as well as I can.

Many teachers allow their pupils to *name* the letters of a word without pronouncing the syllables. I can not appove of this. Any child can name the letters, but to pronounce the word correctly, he must be able to pronounce each syllable.

Pupils should also be taught to spell words by *sound;* for, with its other advantages, it gives him a key to the silent letters.

For advanced classes, I give a half-lesson containing from twenty-one to twenty-eight words. The pupils assemble with their slates, and from the half-lesson I select twenty words promiscuously, and pronounce them slowly, the pupils writing them on their slates. When twenty words have been written, the pupils exchange slates, and I spell the words in their order, and each word spelled incorrectly is checked. The number of words spelled correctly multiplied by five gives the per cent. of correct spelling. I call the class roll, and the pupils give the per cent. on the slate held by them. This record is open to the inspection of parents and visitors, and is a stimulus to exertion. I have pupils who have not fallen below 100 per cent. for weeks, and others who began below 50 per cent., but who are now able to report from 75 per cent. to 100 per cent.

The pupils like the plan. The recitation occupies only about fifteen minutes.

I hope I may hear from others on this subject.

J. H. S.

School Officers' Department.

GRADED CERTIFICATES.

The School Examiners of Scioto county have adopted the plan of granting classed certificates in the hope of exciting an emulation among the teachers of the county. The class to which each certificate belongs, is indicated by the words "First Class—Two Years", "Second Class—Eighteen Months", "Third Class—Twelve Months", or "Fourth Class—Six Months", as the class may be, printed at the head in *red ink*. To make the possession of the higher certificates still more desirable the standing of the holder in the several branches is omitted, and, in stead, a private statement is furnished, which is to be exhibited to school directors on request. The certificates, copies of which we have received, are beautifully printed on a fine quality of paper, and are very neat and attractive.

We are also pleased with the rules adopted by the board to govern them in conducting their examinations and in granting certificates. Not only the standing of the applicant in the several branches, but also his age, experience, and success in teaching, are taken into consideration in determining the class of certificate to be granted. "A six months' certificate is regarded as a *trial* certificate, and only in rare and special cases will be granted a second time." Teachers are expected to be readers of the most approved books and periodicals on the subject of education, and the fact that a teacher attends the teachers' institutes and associations within the county, is duly considered.

SCHOOL LEGISLATION.

The General Assembly adjourned on the 18th of May, having passed nearly two hundred general laws, *five* of which relate to schools. Two of these school laws were passed early in the session, and were published in our April issue. The remaining three are found below.

The first makes the law passed February 21, 1867, operative during the years 1868 and 1869—an extension of one year.

The second amends section twenty-two of the general school law by authorizing township boards to levy a tax on a sub-district whenever a two-mill township tax is not sufficient to erect a school-house therein—the question of levying such additional tax to be submitted to the qualified voters of the sub-district. This is another breach in the township feature of our school system. The unjust discrimination between townships and separate districts in the matter of school taxation, is re-enacted—*five* mills in townships, *seven* mills in separate districts? This twenty-second section has been amended *four* times in as many years, and is now about as complicated as it can be made.

The third law amends section twenty-one by authorizing the meeting of qualified voters called to establish a central high school, to distribute the tax from year to year, and empowers the township board to anticipate the proceeds of such levies by borrowing money and issuing bonds. This is a wise amendment.

AN ACT

To amend an act to provide for the organization, supervision and maintenance of common schools, passed February 21, 1867. (See Ohio Laws, vol. 64, pp. 22, 23.)

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio,* That the township board of education of any township in the state shall have power, during the years 1868 and 1869, when, in their opinion, justice and equity require it, to estimate separately the cost of purchasing a school house site, and erecting or repairing a school house thereon, in any particular sub-district or fractional sub-district of the township, wherein the inhabitants have not heretofore borne a reasonable share of the burthen of taxation for such purpose, in comparison with other sub-districts in the township, and certify such portion as they may deem just and equitable of the amount of such estimate to the county auditor of the proper county, together with a map of the lands, and the names of the tax-payers in any such sub-district, which amount so certified shall be assessed by the auditor on the property therein subject to taxation, and placed on the county duplicate specially, and be collected and paid over in the same manner as other school taxes, and be applied for the specific purpose of providing a school house in such sub-district; provided, that such tax shall not be assessed in any sub-district which may be hereafter created, unless the said sub-district shall be composed in whole of territory upon which such tax has not heretofore been levied.

SEC. 2. That the above recited act be and the same is hereby repealed; provided, such repeal shall not affect rights acquired or proceedings pending under said act.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

JOHN F. FOLLETT,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
J. C. LEE,
President of the Senate.

Passed March 26, 1868.

AN ACT

To amend section twenty-two of the act entitled "an act to provide for the organization, supervision and maintenance of common schools," passed March 14, 1853, (S. & C., 1353,) and to repeal the act entitled "an act to amend section twenty-second of the act relating to common schools, passed April 4, 1866," passed April 1, 1867. (Vol. 64 O. L,, 89.)

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio,* That section twenty-two of the act entitled "an act to provide for the organization, supervision and maintenance of common schools," passed March 14, 1853, as amended by the act passed April 1, 1867, be amended so as to read as follows:

Section 22. It shall be the duty of the board of education of any organized township of the state annually to determine by estimate as near as practicable the entire amount of money necessary to be expended in the township for school and school house purposes, including the sustaining of teachers in central or high schools, the prolonging of the terms of the several sub-district or primary schools after the state funds have been exhausted, the erecting, repairing, or furnishing of school houses, and any other school purposes, not exceeding five mills, as follows; not exceeding two mills on the dollar of the taxable property of the township for school house purposes, including erecting, enlarging and repairing of school houses, and purchase of sites, and not exceeding three mills on the dollar of the taxable property of the township for all other of the purposes aforesaid; and if any board of education shall in any one year fail or refuse to estimate and certify a levy or levies sufficient to provide for six months' tuition in their district, or to provide a suitable school house in each sub-district, it shall be the duty of the county commissioners of the county within which such district is located, upon being advised and satisfied thereof, to estimate and cause said levies to be made and entered upon the tax duplicate the same as could have been done upon the estimate and certificate of such board: provided, that if, in the opinion of the township board of education, a greater tax than the aforesaid two mills shall be necessary during any year, for the purpose of purchasing sites or erecting school houses, or for both purposes, the board shall call a special meeting of the qualified voters of the school district over which they have jurisdiction, which meeting shall be called and held in the manner prescribed in the preceding section, and shall decide by vote the question whether such greater tax or any other greater tax for said purposes than the aforesaid two mills on the dollar shall be raised; and provided further, that whenever in the opinion of such board it shall be necessary to authorize a greater tax than the aforesaid two mills to be levied upon the property of any sub-school district in such township for the purpose of purchasing a site and erecting a school house, or for either, such board of education may authorize the local directors of such sub-school district to call a special meeting of the qualified voters thereof in the manner prescribed in the preceding section, to decide by a vote whether such greater tax for said purposes, or either, shall be raised, and the amount so authorized to be raised by such special meeting shall be reported by said local directors to the board of education of such township; and the sum so decided upon by vote, which shall be in excess of the general levy upon the township for such purposes, shall be returned to the county auditor by such board, and by the auditor levied upon said sub-district in addition to the general township levy. These several amounts of money so estimated or decided upon, the board shall make known by certificate, in writing, on or before the first Monday in June in such year, including any tax which may have been voted by a special meeting of electors as provided in the preceding section, to the auditor of the proper county, who shall thereupon assess the entire amount of such estimates, except the extra amount to be levied, as aforesaid, on any sub-district voting the same on all taxable property of the township not included in any city or incorporated village or territory annexed thereto forming any special district, to be entered by said auditor on the tax duplicate of the county and collected by the county treasurer at the same time and in the same manner as state and county taxes are collected, and when collected shall be paid over to the treasurer of the proper township on the order of the county auditor; and said county treasurer shall be entitled to receive for collections one per centum on all moneys by him collected for school purposes, and no more; provided, that boards of education in cities, towns, incorporated villages, and special and separate school districts organized under any law of this state, shall have power to levy taxes for school and school house purposes, (and to pay debts that may have accrued or been contracted by such boards of education for either of said purposes of seven mills on the dollar per annum), and when in the opinion of such board of education a greater tax for said purposes than said seven mills may be necessary, said board shall call a special meeting of the qualified voters of the school district over which such board shall have jurisdiction to decide the question whether a greater tax shall be levied for said purposes than said seven mills, in the same manner as is herein directed in relation to meetings called by boards of education of townships.

SEC. 2. That the act entitled "an act to amend section twenty-second of the act relating to common schools," passed April 4, 1866, passed April 1, 1867, be and the same is hereby repealed.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

F. W. THORNHILL,
Speaker pro tem. of the House of Representatives.
T. J. GODFREY,
President pro tem. of the Senate.

Passed May 5, 1868.

AN ACT

To amend section twenty-one of the act entitled "an act to provide for the reorganization, supervision and maintenance of common schools," passed March 14, 1853. (S. & C. Stat., 1345.)

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio,* That section twenty-one of the act entitled "an act to provide for the reorganization, supervision and maintenance of common schools," passed March 14, 1853, be amended so as to read as follows:

Section 21. Whenever, in the opinion of the board of education, it shall become necessary or desirable to provide one or more such central or high schools in their respective townships, the said board shall estimate the probable cost thereof, and call a special meeting of the qualified voters of the township, and who are not residents of any of the territory or districts named in the first section of this act, over which the jurisdiction of the township and local directors is excluded, at the usual place of holding elections, first giving twenty days' notice of the time and object of holding such meeting, by posting the same in some public place in each of the several sub-districts of the township; in which notice the cost of providing such central or high school or schools as estimated by the board, shall be stated, and the electors, when convened in pursuance of such notice, shall decide by vote any questions which may be deemed important in relation to the cost and location of the building or buildings,

or other provisions necessary for the establishment of any such school, and also the rate of township tax which may be levied each year thereafter, until the cost of providing such central or high school or schools shall be raised; and if a majority of the qualified voters at such meeting shall vote in favor of raising money by taxation for said purposes, and fix the rate to be levied each year thereafter until the actual cost of providing such central or high school or schools shall be raised, said board of education shall certify the same, annually, to the county auditor of the proper county, who shall place the same upon the tax duplicate in the same manner that other taxes certified by such board of education are required to be placed on such tax duplicate: and to enable such boards of education to anticipate the moneys to be raised by such taxation for said purposes, they are hereby authorised to borrow the sum of money necessary, and to issue bonds therefor, payable at the pleasure of said board after a certain day to be named therein, bearing interest, payable semi-annually, at a rate not exceeding eight per centum per annum, and the bond so issued by such board, shall be in such sums as the board may determine, be numbered consecutively, made payable to the bearer, bear date the day of the sale thereof, and be signed by such board officially, and the clerk of the board shall keep a record of the number, date, amount and rate of interest of each bond sold, and the name of the person to whom sold, and the time when payable; which record shall, at all reasonable times, be open to the inspection of the public, and said bonds shall in no case be sold for a less sum than their par value. The chairman and clerk of the board shall be chairman and clerk of the meeting, and the clerk shall record in the records of the board the action of the meeting, and the board shall be governed by the direction and vote of said meeting in relation to the subjects or matters so submitted.

SEC. 2. That said original section twenty-one be and the same is hereby repealed.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

JOHN F. FOLLETT,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
J. C. LEE,
President of the Senate.

Passed May 14, 1868.

A law supplementary to the general school law was passed May 5th, but it is too limited in its application to justify its insertion in these pages. It provides for the admission of public-school pupils to schools supported by bequests for the education of poor children, and authorizes boards of education to pay for their tuition.

* * *

SELECTION OF SCHOOL-HOUSE SITES.

QUESTION.—Whose duty is it, under the school law, to select the school-house sites in the sub-districts?

ANSWER.—It is the legal right and the legal duty of the *township board of education* to select the school-house sites in the sub-districts. When there is any question as to the proper location of a new school-house, the township board of education ought to appoint a committee, from their own number, composed of men who are personally disinterested in the matter to be determined, and require the committee so constituted to visit and inspect the various sites proposed, and to inform themselves in regard to all the circumstances proper and necessary to a wise choice. This committee should be required to make report at a subsequent meeting of the board, and at such meeting the question should be settled by the formal action of the board. Meetings and votes by the qualified electors, to determine the location of school-houses, very often result in local controversies, ill feeling, and often in unfortunate selections.—*From School Commissioner's Report.*

Editorial Department.

ALL yearly subscriptions to the MONTHLY beginning with the July number, 1867, close with the present issue. Those interested are reminded that we discontinue sending the MONTHLY when subscriptions expire. We trust that prompt renewals will relieve us from the necessity of striking so many names from our books. We do not wish to part with any of our readers.

We desire, in this connection, to thank those who have lent their assistance in increasing our subscription list, and we know that all will be gratified to learn that the first half of the current volume closes with a larger circulation than any of its predecessors. We hope to reach the coveted 4000 subscribers before the close of the year.

INTERMEDDLING.

The intermeddler is found in nearly every neighborhood. His occupation is to mind other people's business and, especially, to meddle in other people's quarrels. He scents a personal difference with the instinct that guides the raven to the far-off carrion, and, espousing the cause of one of the parties, he takes no rest until the breach is made as wide and irreparable as possible. Every way-side remark, every circumstance that can be used for his purpose, is seized upon, and whatever may be wanting to make out his case, suspicion (his never failing resort) is called upon to supply.

Nor is the mischief of the intermeddler confined to petty neighborhoods. The peace and success of many a pastor have been destroyed by some go-between who brought to his ears the criticisms and fault-findings of some displeased hearer; and the progress of many a good cause has been jeopardized by mischievous intermeddling in personal differences arising between its advocates. Indeed, the higher the ends sacrificed by misunderstandings between co-workers, the greater is the mischief of the intermeddler, and the more contemptible is his office.

The intermeddler is, in brief, the destroyer of friendships, the engenderer of neighborhood feuds, and the disturber of social peace. But for his officious interference nine-tenths of all the personal differences arising between friends, neighbors, and co-workers would be amicably settled or forgotten.

We call to mind an illustration. A misunderstanding once arose between two leading educators, one of them filling a high official position. Personal and other considerations, on both sides, favored an early adjustment of the difference, and, had the parties been left to themselves, this desired result would soon have been reached. But an intermeddler stepped in, and, with the zeal of an expectant attorney, worked up the case. The motives and feelings of the party to which he opposed himself, were misrepresented, and even his efforts to remove the misunderstanding—and several such were made in good faith—were not only subverted, but were perverted into causes of offense. Insinuations and suspicions, emphasized by wise shrugs and looks, were whispered in the ear of educators who happened to visit the city or were met at educational gatherings. Thus a misunderstanding which had no good cause, and which both parties regretted, was continued and aggravated solely by this unwise intermeddling.

We need not give the termination of this affair. The mischief of the intermeddler being disclosed and condemned, every obstacle in the way of a satisfactory adjustment of the difference was removed. "Time makes all things even."

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SCHOOL STATISTICS FOR 1867.

The following important statistics are selected from the tables and summaries found in the report of the School Department for the year ending August 31, 1867:

Number of townships not organized as separate school districts	1,348
Number of separate school districts	351
Number of sub-districts in townships	10,763
Whole number of school-houses in the State	11,353
——Frame, 8,441; brick, 2,031; stone, 96; log, 785.	
Number of school houses erected during the year	549
Cost of school-houses erected and grounds	$955,792
Total value of school-houses and grounds	$9,072,443
Whole number of schools	11,739
——Common, 11,373; high, 151; German, 33; Colored, 182.	
Number of youth between the ages of five and twenty-one years, enumerated	971,705
——Male, 494,458; female, 477,247.	
Increase for the year	19,108
Number of pupils enrolled in the public schools	704,767
——Common, 679,226; high, 11,355; German, 4,100; Colored, 10,086.	
Average number of pupils in daily attendance	397,486
——Common, 381,849; high, 7,518; German, 3,036; Colored, 5,083.	
Per centum of enumerated youth enrolled	70.
Per centum of pupils enrolled in daily attendance	56.4
Per centum of enumerated youth in daily attendance	40.
Whole number of different teachers employed	21,568
——Male, 8,348; female, 13,220.	
Numbers of teachers necessary to supply the schools	13,588
Average number of weeks sub-district schools were in session	25.96
Average number of weeks graded schools were in session	34.41
Number of different applicants for certificates	18,894
Number of applicants for certificates rejected	2,710
Average monthly wages of male teachers	$38.52
Average monthly wages of female teachers	23.80
Total amount paid teachers	$3,195,227.54
Expenditures for sites, buildings, and repairs	1,026,208.99
Fuel and other contingent expenses	542,027.42
Grand total of expenditures	4,763,463.95

A comparison of these statistics with those reported for the year 1857, shows a marked increase in the ten years. We compare a few items:

	1857.	**1867.**
Number of youth enumerated	838,037	971,705
Number of pupils enrolled	603,347	704,767
Average number in daily attendance	350,867	397,486
Number of teachers employed	18,873	21,568
Average monthly wages of male teachers	$27.71	$38.52
Average monthly wages of female teachers	16.22	23.80
Weeks common schools were in session	24.20	27.33
Total amount paid teachers	$1,779,978	$3,195,227
Total expenditures	2,299,917	4,763,464
Value of school-houses and grounds	3,288,317	9,072,443

The total cost of all the school houses erected since 1857, is about $3,500,000, and yet the increase in the total value of school property, as reported, is over $5,500,000. The difference is largely due to the great increase in the nominal value of property, owing to the inflation of the currency We also find that in 1857 there were 570 school houses built at a cost of $293,040, or about $500 each. Last year the cost of building 549 houses was $955,792, or about $1,750 each. This comparison indicates a marked improvement in the character of our school houses.

In the very full summary of statistics given by the Commissioner, we find data for comparing the school attendance in the townships and in the cities and towns, and we confess that we are surprised that this presents so small a difference. In the townships 79.7 per cent. of the youth of school age were enrolled in the schools, and 54.1 per cent. of the pupils enrolled were, on an average, in daily attendance for 25.96 weeks. This gives an average of 11.2 weeks of school-going to each youth of school age. In the separate districts having graded schools 53.1 per cent. of the youth of school age were enrolled, and 63.6 per cent. of the pupils enrolled were, on an average, in daily attendance for a period of 34.41 weeks. This gives an average of 11.6 weeks of school-going to each youth of school age. The comparison is 11.2 weeks in the country sub-districts; 11.6 weeks in the separate graded districts—*the difference being two days!* The separate districts having *ungraded* schools (in session, on an average, but 30.71 weeks), are not included in this comparison. If they were added to the graded districts, the difference would be still less.

These figures do not, however, present the comparative value of the school advantages enjoyed by the youth in the two classes of schools. The youth in our cities and towns do not attend school as many years as those in the country —they enter school later and leave earlier—but, during their school-going years, their attendance is more regular and continuous. A larger proportion of the youth in cities attend private schools.

In 1857 but 20 institutes were reported; last year 45 were held, attended by 3,619 teachers. This fact is full of encouragement.

The tables in the report contain returns from 647 private schools, showing an enrollment of 26,450 pupils; 65 academies with 6,167 students; 43 ladies' seminaries with 4,217 students; and 26 colleges with 4,738 students, of whom only 1,113 are pursuing a regular college course.

MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION.

We have not received the promised announcement of the persons selected to read papers at the meeting of the Association at Dayton, but the topics announced in our May issue, are an assurance that the exercises will not be lacking in interest or profit. Able papers will doubtless be presented, and we hope that the teachers of the State will come together *prepared* to participate in the discussions. The success of the meeting depends more on the character of the discussions than on the papers and addresses. Pointed, thorough, and earnest discussions never fail to interest, and that we may have such discussions, each speaker must be prepared to communicate his best thoughts in the fewest possible words. The time of the Association has been too often frittered away in rambling and useless talk. We hope for better things at Dayton.

There is one other suggestion which we are "moved" to offer. But little time should be taken up in mere routine business. We have attended meetings of the Association at which nearly one-third of the time was wasted in enrolling delegates, issuing tickets of membership and railroad passes, announcing arrangements, etc., etc. Much of this disturbance is due to the system of official red-tapism which has been introduced.

In a recent letter to us, Prof. Tappan suggests a simple mode of remedying this evil. He says:

> There is too much circumlocution-office business at the meetings of our Ohio Teachers' Association. Let the tickets of membership be dispensed with. They are of no use. Let each gentlemen write on a prepared blank his name, residence, and the railroads over which he has paid full fare in coming. Let him hand this with one dollar to the Treasurer. Let each lady who is a new member, do the same. Let each lady who is an old member, write on the blank in addition to the above items, the time and place when she became a member. The Treasurer can easily attend to fifty members in five minutes, thus avoiding the crowd, jostle, and delay.
>
> The Treasurer may, at his leisure, record the names and residences; and verify the statements of those who claim to be already members, by reference to his record of previous years. Then he may hand over to the Corresponding Secretary all the blanks, and this officer may prepare all the return railway certificates. These being prepared and arranged alphabetically, can be delivered in a few minutes to all who are entitled to them, thus avoiding another crowd, jostle, delay, and wear and tear of clothes and patience.
>
> The President and Recording Secretary need have nothing to do with any of this business. Their regular duties are enough for them.

We most heartily commend these suggestions, and we hope that their adoption at Dayton may relieve the Association from what has become a serious annoyance.

The meeting is to be held June 30th, and July 1st and 2d, and we feel safe in promising that the Association will receive a hearty welcome from the citizens.

THE SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

Our readers will be surprised to learn that the General Assembly at its late session refused to make the usual appropriation to pay the traveling expenses of the School Commissioner, and that the appropriation for clerical assistance in the office was reduced to $700. This action shows an indifference respecting the claims of this Department, if not an actual hostility to it, which, to say the least, is very discreditable to our law makers. Look at the facts:

The Commissioner is required by law to spend annually *at least* ten days in each judicial district—ninety days in all—in the discharge of specified important duties. This service can not be performed without incurring traveling expenses to the amount of at least $500. The salary of the Commissioner is only $2,000, which is less than the salary of several teachers in the State, and $1,000 less than the salary of other State officers whose duties are all discharged at the State House. The duties of the office require an experienced clerk—one capable of acting as deputy in the absence of the Commissioner.

A bare recital of these facts ought to make the men guilty of this petty legislation ashamed of their ignorance. Instead of crippling the School Department by withholding customary appropriations, its means of efficiency should have been greatly increased. We hope to see the day when this office will be put on a footing of equality with the other State offices, and when the appropriations for its maintenance will be worthy of the great cause which it represents. Pennsylvania pays $8,500 for the support of the School Department, not including stationery, postage, etc.; Ohio pays $2,700.

MEETING OF STATE BOARD.

The State Board of Examiners will hold a meeting for the examination of applicants for a State certificate at Dayton, on Friday, July 3, 1868.

Each candidate is required—

1. To have had five years' experience as a teacher.
2. To present to the Board testimonials of success in teaching, from Boards of Education, Directors, Trustees, or those in whose employment he or she has been, covering a period of five years.
3. To present testimonials of good moral character from well known and responsible persons.

The original papers, not copies, are required in every case. They will be returned after inspection. Certificates are not graded. Each candidate will be examined in the following branches: Orthography, Reading, Penmanship, Arithmetic, Geography, English Grammar, United States History, Physiology, Elementary Algebra, Plane Geometry, Natural Philosophy, and Theory and Practice of Teaching. Any one desiring other branches added to the certificate, will be examined in such additional branches.

The certificates granted by the Board are valid in any public school in Ohio for the lifetime of the holder. It is hoped that many of the earnest, faithful teachers of the State will present themselves for examination.

By order of the Board: W. MITCHELL.

COLUMBUS, O., May 12, 1868.

MISCELLANY.

All subscriptions received prior to July 1st, will begin with the January number—the first number of the current volume—unless the publisher is otherwise directed. We can still supply back numbers, and new subscribers will find them interesting and valuable.

We call special attention to the article in this number contributed by Hon. Thomas Spooner. Mr. S. takes a deep interest in the cause of education, and especially in the improvement of the schools in the rural districts. We do not indorse all the views expressed in the article, but we are none the less glad to welcome it to our pages. When men like Mr. Mansfield and Mr. Spooner become contributors to the Monthly, we feel that its influence is widening and its usefulness increasing.

We shall esteem it a favor if those making arrangements for teachers' institutes will notify us of the time, place, and instructors. We shall be glad to announce the same in the Monthly.

We are often requested to recommend institute instructors, and it will assist us to do so if those in this work will keep us informed respecting their engagements. George S. Ormsby, Xenia, U. T. Curran, Glendale, W. Watkins, Marion, Prof. W. H. Cole, Delaware, W. E. Crosby, Lima, and Robert P. Shaw, Bellefontaine, are each prepared to render efficient service.

Columbus High School.—The pupils of this school gave a free public concert on Friday evening, May 22. The selections were from the higher order of musical composition, and were, without exception, well executed. The school has been for several years under excellent musical training, and has attained a high degree of proficiency. We take pleasure in adding that in other respects it stands among the best institutions of its class in the country. We know of no high school that has as many pupils in proportion to the number enrolled in the lower schools, or that graduates so large a per cent. of the pupils admitted. The attendance of the pupils is remarkably regular. The whole number of pupils enrolled this year is 221—boys, 88; girls, 133—and the average monthly enrollment for the eight months ending May 1, was 203. The average daily attendance was 194; the average daily absence (by the "Chicago Rule"), 2; the average number belonging, 196: the per cent. of attendance on the average number belonging, 99; and the per cent. of attendance on the average monthly enrollment, 95½. The average number falling below 90 per cent. on attendance, deportment, and scholarship combined, was less than 30 a month. This is an excellent record. The school has six efficient teachers—Messrs. H. S. Westgate (Principal), C. E. Burr, and B. O. True, and Misses E. N. Burr, Ella J. Morgan, and Emma Gray. We regret to add that Messrs. Westgate and Burr leave at the close of the current school year.

Van Wert.—The *Bulletin* is proud of the new school building, and thinks it superior to any other in that section of the State. It also pays a high compliment to Supt. Lane who has made a good beginning by thoroughly grading the schools and mapping out a complete course of study.

Galion.—Supt. Hartzler writes us that the Cleveland Board has been freebooting among his teachers, and has carried off the principal of his high school, Mr. L. W. Day, whose place is now filled by Mr. M. E. Williams, of Ontario. Mr. Hartzler has a fine corps of teachers, and is building up an excellent system of schools.

Miscellany.

Urbana.—The board of education has submitted to the people a proposition to vote a levy of $80,000 to purchase a site and erect thereon a central high school building. The design is to purchase a large lot and to erect a building which will meet the wants of the city for years to come. We hope to be able to record in our next issue that the tax has been voted. There is no investment that pays like a fine school building, and, besides, it is the best recommendation a town can have.

Miamisburg.—The citizens have voted a tax of $8,000 to enlarge and improve the present school building. The schools, which, a few months ago, were organized on the graded plan, are in charge of Mr. L. O. Foose, and are making good progress.

Washington C. H.—The examination of the several departments of the public schools has been in progress for three weeks, and will be continued until June 4th. The results reflect credit on both teachers and pupils. The number of pupils enrolled is about 340, with an average attendance of 325. Mr. Morehouse is a live superintendent.

Moscow.—The pupils in the public schools have presented to Mr. J. H. Laycock, their efficient principal, a copy of Webster's New Unabridged as a token of their appreciation of his services. Mr. L. has opened a private school for ten weeks as a supplement to the public school term.

Fisk University.—The normal department now contains forty normal pupils under the training of Prof. Ogden. Sixteen of these pupils are supported from the Peabody fund, and all are preparing to be teachers. They engage in actual teaching each day as a part of their training, and are making decided progress. This institution is already felt as a potent influence in Tennessee. Success to it and all similar enterprises.

Appleton's New Book Factory.—D. Appleton & Co., New York, have just erected the largest and most complete book factory in the world. The establishment is situated in Brooklyn, fronting on Kent Avenue 200 feet, and extending 193 feet south to Penn street, and 252 feet north on Hewes street. The entire area enclosed is over an acre, of which the buildings occupy about two-thirds, leaving an open space in the centre for light and ventilation. The building is castellated, with two towers, and is "all windows." Each branch of the business, from the wetting of the paper to the packing of the books, many thousands of which are packed daily, is conducted in large, light, and airy rooms, and in the centre of all, as the grand motive-force, is a splendid engine of 80 horse-power. The basement contains a paper room, holding thousands of reams of paper, and an immense fire-proof depository for stereotype-plates, containing over 10,000 boxes. The factory is modeled after the mammoth establishment of Mame at Tours, France, (the model book-factory of the Old World,) with the best features of the leading printing-houses and binderies of Europe, and a variety of original improvements, especially adapted to American usages and tastes. It is to be connected with the wholesale house in New York by private telegraph wires.

Normal Institutes.—The annual institute held in connection with the South Western Normal School, will open July 8th, and continue six weeks. Mr. Holbrook informs us that the accommodations will be ample for all who wish to attend. See advertisement.——A five weeks' session of the McNeely Normal School will be held at Hopedale, beginning July 7th. John Hancock, Edwin Regal, and the teachers of the Normal School, will constitute the corps of instructors.——The third session of the Cambridge Normal Institute will open July 20th, and continue six weeks. Instructors—W. K. Gooderl, James Hammond, and John McBurney.——A Normal Institute, in charge of J. J. Burns and J. A. Nelson, will be opened at Washington, Guernsey county, July 13, to continue six weeks.——The Clermont County Institute will be held at Batavia, beginning July 27th, and continuing three weeks. Instructors—T. W. Harvey, John Hancock, and J. K. Parker, who will be assisted by several of the leading teachers of the county.——The second session of the Waynesville Normal Institute, under direction of J. C. Ridge, of Dayton, will open July 20th, and continue four weeks.

Sandusky Co. Institute.—We have received a report of this institute held at Fremont the first week of April. It was conducted by S. J. Kirkwood, of Tiffin, assisted by C. C. Nestlerode, of Fostoria, W. W. Ross, of Fremont, and G. W. Twiss, of Columbus. The exercises were interesting and profitable, and the teachers were placed in possession of many new ideas and improved methods of teaching. The examiners received a vote of "heartfelt thanks" for raising the standard of qualification.

Hamilton Co. Association.—The last meeting of this association at Curran's Academy was attended by over 100 teachers, mostly from outside of the city. An excellent address was delivered by Rev. A. D. Mayo, of Cincinnati, an extract of which we hope to publish next month.

A Good Suggestion.—Mr. Watkins, Supt. of the public schools of Marion, writes :

> "The Monthly is intensely interesting, *facile princeps* among educational papers. I can see but one way in which it could be improved, and that is by containing a larger number of *notes* from the different educators of the State. I mean short articles, from ten lines to half a page, touching on some point of interest, detailing some experience, relating an anecdote, or asking for information—and always signed at least with initials so that the writer may be known."

We like this suggestion, and shall be very glad to devote several pages each month to such short pithy notes as Mr. Watkins suggests. Who will respond to this suggestion ?

Map Drawing.—We have before us a few specimens of maps drawn entirely from memory by the pupils in the Park Street School of this city. They are executed with great accuracy, and reflect much credit on Mr. Peasley's skill as an instructor. He used Apgar's method.

W. R. Spooner has resigned his position in the schools of Bloomingburg to accept a position in the Cleveland Institute. On leaving the school he received many testimonials of his pupils' esteem.

Prof. Moses T. Brown, formerly in charge of the public schools of Toledo, and now Professor of Elocution in Tufts College, is giving Readings and Elocutionary Entertainments in various parts of New England. His performances are highly praised.

James Kent Stone has resigned the Presidency of Kenyon College, Gambier, O., to take effect on the 25th of June next. He has accepted the Presidency of Hobart College at Geneva, Western New York.

N. A. Barrett, of Newton Falls, has taken charge of the public school of Madison, Lake county.

Jesse H. Brown, School Examiner of Wayne county, Ind., has accepted the position of State Institute Agent. He will make an efficient officer.

BOOK NOTICES.

A PRACTICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, for the Use of Schools of every Grade. By THOMAS W. HARVEY, A.M. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co. 1868.

This work is not the development of the subject of grammar from a new stand-point, nor does it embody a distinctively new method of teaching. Its leading idea is that the critical study of the elements, forms, structure, and laws of language constitute the true means of acquiring accuracy and facility in its use, and from this generally approved stand-point, the subject is unfolded in a clear, simple, and thorough manner. The work is, in brief, a practical and concise embodiment of the results of a careful winnowing and sifting of current grammatical knowledge. It contains few innovations and fewer crudities and errors, and is commendably free from cumbrous erudition and detail. These facts will, we think, make the book widely popular.

But the book is more than a wise selection and arrangement of approved materials. Its pages bear evidence of critical and thorough investigation, and contain many valuable improvements on the ordinary methods of grammatical instruction. Among these is the introduction of each part of speech by a familiar "Oral Lesson" in which the idea is clearly developed, thus carrying out the maxim—"Ideas *before* definitions." Throughout the work more or less prominence is given to synthesis, and the subject of syntax is introduced by a few admirable lessons in sentence-making.

The definitions, classifications, and nomenclature are, as a whole, equal, if not superior, to those of any similar work which we have examined. The improvements settled by discussion have been very generally adopted. We could cite many examples had we the necessary space. The exercises are progressively graded—an important matter—and the numerous "Models" for parsing and analysis are carefully arranged. No one who turns the leaves of the book, can fail to notice its superior typograghy. Its mechanical execution reflects high credit on the taste and skill of the publishers.

We take it for granted that there lies back of this work an introductory course of practical instruction in synthesis—a royal highway to it. In this expectation, and without comparing our worthy friend's book with our own imperfect ideal, we take great pleasure in placing it in the front rank of elementary works on English Grammar.

GUYOT'S GEOGRAPHICAL TEXT-BOOKS: I. Primary Geography, or Introduction to the Study of Geography. II. Common School Geography—The Earth and Its Inhabitants. By Prof. ARNOLD GUYOT. New York: Charles Scribner & Co. Ingham & Bragg, Cleveland, O.

A more minute examination of Guyot's Primary and Common School Geographies has only confirmed my first impression of their transcendent excellence above all our former text-books. The first is indeed a charming work, and, in the hands of a loving teacher, can not fail to be a source of delight to the little folk. The next, being written for an older and graver set, is, of necessity, less winning in its execution. Of course, the most original and valuable portion of the work is that which is intended for the teacher's own instruction, showing how that method alone can succeed which faithfully conforms to Nature's law in the successive development of the child's faculties, and how faulty is the yet too general practice of appealing to yet unborn or rudimentary faculties, such as abstraction, etc. The minute directions about the use of the book and the order of the subjects, will be a source of strength to many an unexperienced but earnest teacher, anxious to do her best but lacking self-confidence. Some may object that the descriptions of remarkable places are, in a few cases, sketchy and superficial; but they are intended only as an outline to be filled up, according to the teacher's discretion, from her own stores of knowledge, which she can more skillfully adapt to the varying wants and appetite of her scholars, and present in a far more graphic and living manner than the dumb and formal text-book.

Now, indeed, is fully realized the original conception of geographical teaching, imperfectly foreshadowed by Pestalozzi and his disciples. As I read, I felt powerfully impressed with the beautiful harmony of truth in its multitudinous relations to all branches of knowledge. Whilst studying a book that professes to be exclusively devoted to the teaching of geography, the young teacher will, almost unconsciously, learn from its suggestive pages the science of intellectual training. This, at least, has been my own experience. I felt as in the presence of a master-mind, whose precepts confirmed and enlarged my faith in the duty of obedience to Nature's voice in all our teachings. This work presents only the partial application of one universal, ruling principle, thus affording the strongest possible evidence of the truth of the author's doctrine that the teacher's chief aim must be to supply the learner with whatever necessary facts he could not find by his own unaided observation, and, by inferences, thus putting him in a way to build up for himself the whole edifice of the science, be it physical geography, grammar, or mathematics.

But hitherto it has been too often the practice to put, as it were, the cart before the horse, or, which is almost as great an outrage to the learner, to rob him of his privilege and forestall the pleasure of discovery, by telling him what, under skillful management, he would have been delighted to find out for himself. In Geography, particularly, the memory has been stuffed, or *attempted to be stuffed* (for nature will sometimes rebel), with a farrago of unconnected facts, wrenched from their natural connection, and thus robbed of their true significance.

It is not, then, an empty boast of the spirited publishers of this series, that it will revolutionize the teaching of geography. Many, like myself, are, I am sure, longing for the promised "High School Geography."

The splendid wall maps which form so conspicuous and so essential a part of the course, need only to be seen to force upon every one the conviction that they must, ere long, supersede all similar maps.

Now, at last, geography, instead of a mere catalogue of dry and hard names to be mastered by a painful effort of verbal memory, will assume her proper rank in our schools as one of the most valuable as well as delightful of our scientific studies. In the concluding series, it will indeed be the crowning work of all the physical sciences, which she will serve to bind together in one golden chain of harmonious truth and beauty.

T. E. S.

WEBB'S WORD METHOD: Being also a Key to the Dissected Cards. A New Method of Teaching Reading founded on Nature and Reason. By J. RUSSELL WEBB. Detroit: E. B. Smith & Co. 128 pp. 12mo.

This is a careful revision of the several editions of the author's work on this method, the first of which was issued more than twenty years' ago. It may, therefore, be received as the practical embodiment of the author's long experience, and, we may add, the experience of thousands of teachers, in the use of the "Word Method." The explanation of the method and the directions to teachers show clearly the true function of the method and the proper limit of its use, thus guarding teachers against its misapplication and abuse. The book is beautifully printed and illustrated, and is, beyond question, one of the best primary readers yet published.

The author has also invented a set of "Dissected Cards", designed to accompany the book. The frame is so arranged as to provide separate grooves for the word cards, and picture cards, thus enabling the teachers to present the *picture* and *word* together. It also contains grooves for combining words into sentences, with "Hunting Exercises," etc. We have seen no invention of the kind, and we have seen several, that equal this in utility and convenience. It is manufactured by A. H. Andrews & Co., Chicago, Ill.

THE READABLE DICTIONARY: or Topical and Synonymic Lexicon. For the Use of Schools and Private Students. By JOHN WILLIAMS, A. M. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1868.

The first edition of this work was published in 1860, by Follett, Foster & Co., formerly of this city. We are glad to see that it has been revised and transferred to the enterprising publishers whose imprint it now bears. It is the production of one of Ohio's ripest scholars, and is worthy of a wide circulation. The distinctive feature of the work is the arrangement of the words defined on the topical principle—all terms relating to the same general subject being grouped together. The advantages of this arrangement are obvious and important. It gives connection to the definitions, and brings those of similar meaning into juxtaposition. The definitions, which are given in the form of a single sentence, are characterized by great clearness and accuracy, and many of them are illustrated by sentences and phrases. The book also contains a list of foreign terms and phrases, and an alphabetical list of Latin and Greek Roots. It is, in a word, a first rate book of a class which ought to be in demand.

THE SABBATH-SCHOOL INDEX. By R. G. PARDEE, A.M. Philadelphia: J. C. Garrigues & Co. 1868.

This is a practical and valuable guide in Sabbath-school instruction and management. It contains a concise history of Sabbath Schools, with approved modes of instruction, examples in illustrative, pictorial, and object-teaching, suggestions respecting the use of the blackboard, the management of infant classes, teachers' meetings, conventions, institutes, etc.—and all of these vital topics are treated from a practical stand-point, and by one who has had a long and wide experience in the Sabbath-school work. We are sure that no teacher who reads this book, will fail to receive profit from it. The very spirit in which it is written kindles a new zeal in the reader, which will of itself bear good fruit. We cordially commend the book to all of our readers who belong to the great and noble army of Sabbath-school workers.

THE ELEMENTS OF WRITTEN ARITHMETIC; Combining Analysis and Synthesis. Adapted to the Best Mode of Instruction for Beginners. By JAMES S. EATON, M.A. Boston: Taggard & Thompson. 1868.

This work, prepared by James S. Eaton, son of the author of Eaton's Series of Arithmetics, will compare favorable with the very best works of its class. It presents a brief, practical course in the elements of Written Arithmetic—such a course as will serve the pupil in the ordinary business of life, or prepare him for a more thorough and extended course of study. It embraces the ground rules, denominate numbers, fractions (common and decimal), United States money, percentage, and the Metric System. The definitions are few and simple, the rules concise, and the exercises well-selected and numerous. It is a good book.

PHONIC CHARTS, for Self-Training in the Sounds of Language. By N. A. CALKINS, Assist. Sup't of New York City Schools. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Here is another aid to school instruction which can not fail to be very useful. These charts admirably serve the double purpose of affording excellent phonic drills for pupils, and, at the same time, guiding the teacher in the work of instruction—a

guidance which the great body of teachers sadly need. The exercises are progressively graded, and each is accompanied with such such plain directions that no teacher ought to fail to get the true sound. They are printed on strong paper, and are conveniently mounted on a single roller—the true way to mount charts.

MONTHLY ADVERTISER.

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WHAT IS SAID OF THE MONTHLY.

And let me take this opportunity to tell you how cordially your Educational Monthly is welcomed to my table. I always read it with pleasure and profit. It stands in the very first rank of its class of magazines. I wish it could be read not only by every teacher in Ohio, but by every teacher in Massachusetts,—yes, every one in the whole country.—John D. Philbrick, *Supt. Schools, Boston, Mass.*, (April 6).

Your reading matter is superior to that of any other Educational Journal within my acquaintance.—M. R. Freshwaters, *Wellsburg, W. Va.*

The Ohio Educational Monthly (*Columbus, O.*).—Very ably sustained under the editorial supervision of E. E. White, one of the ablest educational writers of the West, who has gathered about him a corps of the very best writers on educational topics which our country affords.—*The Maine Normal.*

This periodical is ably edited, beautifully printed, and, we are glad to learn, well supported.—*American Friend.*

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THE

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TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

It is our purpose in this paper to discuss not so much the necessity of institutes, as their true nature and the best method of conducting them; but as this latter depends somewhat upon the former, and both upon our peculiar system of public instruction, it will be proper to notice these subjects in the inverse order of their statement.

Much has been said both for and against a system of State education. After reading both sides carefully, the candid man finds much truth upon either, and concludes that the best system would be that lying between the two extremes; that is, a well arranged system of public instruction vitalized by individual interest. If this vitalization be wanting, the best arranged system must prove feeble in action, and almost useless in effect.

It is an indisputable fact that legislation can never supply vital action; the province of the legislator is to control, to direct—not to create. If legislation attempts to create public sentiment, it must certainly fail; so also if the people rely upon statutes for life and vitality, they will as certainly be disappointed. This fact, or rather the relation of these two facts, has been either overlooked or imperfectly understood by many of the educational men of our country. Education by the State is an almost lifeless thing unless vitalized by the people; while private education also fails, in that it does not reach the masses who most need it. If, then, our common school system can only be vigorously applied, we may congratulate ourselves that we have hit upon the right plan for the education of our people; and anything that tends to this must meet the cordial approbation of all patriotic citizens. It is of the institute as affecting this end, that we desire to devote the remainder of this paper.

In union there is strength; in concert of action there is success. This concert of action is greatly lacking in our public schools. Teachers during term time rarely meet each other, and seldom confer upon the subject of teaching, and in our present system, there is no one who has a general oversight of the teachers and schools; so that teachers know little of each other, and less of each other's method of teaching. The object of the institute is, or ought to be, to supply this want.

This want is the greater when we remember the class of young men and women in charge of most of our schools. What are the facts? Many, if not most, of our young male teachers are young men, with little or no experience in the school-room as teachers; they are for the most part students themselves, perhaps in our colleges and high schools preparing for other fields of labor, and who make use of teaching as a convenient stepping-stone to something else. We have few professional teachers.

However much we might wish it otherwise, the fact is as above stated, and is likely so to be until the remuneration for teaching will warrant a young man of talent and energy in adopting it as a profession.

With female teachers the same is true, with this difference: the change of occupation they look to is a matrimonial settlement.

Given this material out of which to make teachers, and given the institute as a means of qualifying them, how can it be made the most effective? This brings us to the consideration of the method of conducting institutes.

Much as may be said against the method of routine lessons, no one will deny that thorough, exact scholarship—the basis of an education—can be acquired only by drill work. He who is the most successful in this, is, for the most part, the best common school teacher. That the teacher should do no other but this kind of work, no one will contend. On the contrary, the teacher should study to draw out from his pupils "free and original thought—the jotting down of what the spirit brings back when it has been wandering up and down the earth in search of some green and beautiful thing not found in its earthly house of clay." But while we have this general instruction, if we have not routine lessons—drill work,—we will be in great danger of making a generation of visionaries.

What many young men of our land of the rank of sophomore are clamoring for, is less restriction of recitation drill—more freedom of discussion—less restraint upon genius—a return to the Socratic mode. No greater calamity could befall us as a people than such a state of things in our schools. There is already too great a tendency to throw of the restraint of wholesome discipline. It will do when maturity of judgment has been attained, and when the individual feels a responsibility for the opinions he expresses which shall act as a safeguard against their too hasty utterance.

This thought affords the key to the institute. It should be a model school with the addition of theory and practice of teaching. I know of but one thing that should change this—the length of the session. If an institute can be continued no longer than a few days, a different order of exercises may more profitably be adopted. But where the sessions can be two or more weeks—and when possible they should be—the institute should approach the school model.

To make model schools, of course we must have model teachers—men who are devoted to their work. I am aware of the difficulty of securing such teachers, especially at the season of the year when institutes are usually held. The good teacher who does his duty faithfully nine or ten months in the schoolroom, feels the necessity of devoting the summer vacation to recuperation.

But teachers ought to feel it a *duty* to assist in the institute work, and if each would consent to do a part of the work good institute instructors would be supplied without burdening any one.

We have spoken of the institute as a means of vitalizing our system of public schools. This it accomplishes in two ways: first, by elevating the standard of education in better qualifying our teachers, as we have endeavored to set forth above; secondly, by a course of evening lectures on education by practical educational men during the session of the institute. This forms no small part of institute work, and deserves a longer discussion than the length of this paper will allow; it can only be alluded to. This is the work ably discussed by "E. D. M." in the March number of the MONTHLY, to whose article we beg leave to direct the attention of the reader. The article is ably written, and calls attention to a want in our educational system; but the author makes a mistake in substituting this kind of education for another which can never be dispensed with without destroying thorough scholarship. The same mistake is made by the author in applying this principle to institutes—in substituting the forum for the camp. In the closing paragraph of his article he says: "I would have teachers' institutes meet at an early hour, and transact whatever pertained to them as teachers. Then I would have them resolved into a forum for the discussion of all the great problems of human life, the institute preserving its own officers and rules for the preserving of order." Nothing could be farther from the intention of those who organized our present system of institutes than this.

The idea of drawing from public funds the amount of one or two hundred dollars for the purpose of paying the expenses of a debating club, is preposterous,—not to speak of the loss of such an opportunity to prepare teachers for more successful school work.

Then, again, this order of exercises would fail in securing the object intended. Being held during the business hours of the day, but few except teachers would be benefited by them. But if the day be occupied with the teachers in what more particularly interests them as teachers, and the evening, when business men are at leisure, be set apart for this system of lectures and discussions, then each will have its appropriate place, and if well conducted, can not fail to be both interesting and profitable.

To recapitulate: We need increased vitality to make our public system of education the more successful—our teachers are not prepared by special training for their work—given the institute to accomplish these ends, how shall it be applied?—how shall it be conducted? Let the institutes be camps for instruction—model schools, imparting knowledge, drawing out and systematizing under the direction of competent managers,—let the evening, as far as possible, be occupied with exercises calculated to be instructive as well as to awaken increased interest in education. With such a programme well carried out, institutes can not fail soon to become a permanent and useful part of public education.

Delaware, Ohio. W. H. C.

PRENDERGAST'S MASTERY OF LANGUAGES.

There is a general feeling of disappointment and dissatisfaction in the land; the air is laden with mutterings against the waste of time spent in *not* learning Latin and Greek in most of our schools and colleges, that remind one of Dickens's Circumlocutory Office. And yet we, who have had our souls refreshed by draughts from the native fount of ancient literature, shrink from the notion of breaking the cup and sealing up the sacred waters from the lips of our successors in the students' pilgrimage.

Many, many years ago, when I was a student in the University of Glasgow, the most popular dramatist of our time, Sheridan Knowles, then yet unknown to fame, often told me, with all the earnestness of his Irish nature and poetic temperament, how much he envied me my knowledge of Greek and Latin (nothing to boast of in those days, nor even now!)—how he wished he could dip into the original springs of classic inspiration, instead of being compelled, by the deficiency of his early education to content himself with the flavorless dilutions which modern translations and imitations afforded him! "I have that in my head," he would say, "which I would fain work into living dramas, if I could only, once in my life, inhale the genuine perfume of those old poems and histories, whose legends I feel I could shape into forms of power and beauty."

Here and there, efforts are made, with more or less success, to prevent the waste which, in the face of so many new sciences claiming our attention, has become nearly unbearable, and yet to secure so thorough a knowledge of the *essentials* of Latin and Greek as may enable the youth, when become a man, to carry on the study of those glorious tongues, so far as his predilections, opportunities, talent, and literary wants shall point out.

In some former number of this journal, when speaking of Pestalozzi, I remarked how the ideas of that venerated apostle of intellectual education have borne fruit all over this land,—how the spirit of his method has spread to the farthest regions of the West. Every where one may trace its operation in the work of many an obscure teacher, who may never have heard the name of Pestalozzi, but who, nevertheless, partly by transmission from others or his own reading, partly by the promptings of truth and common sense, has learned to tread in his footsteps.

For instance, what branch of education seems more hopelessly dry and mechanical, less adapted to the cultivation of the intellectual faculties in a child, than writing, *the mere copying of written characters!* Accordingly, how lifeless and unintellectual the writing-lesson usually is! But, under the skillful management of L. S. Thompson, of the Sandusky Public Schools, what a change! The dry bones are roused into life by a stirring mode of questioning on the individual peculiarities, the correctness or incorrectness of the various characters traced by the pupils or for them. Thus, they are kept in a constant and gentle flow of healthy excitement. Not only is the lesson a pleasant exercise of the eye and the hand, but the faculties of comparison and language are called into lively action, not only without any loss, but rather with a positive gain in the artistic development of form, which is the professed and primary purpose of the lesson. He also brings in the sister art of drawing, to lend her aid in the cultivation of that innate love of the beautiful—a love that requires only encouragement in order to bud forth into new creations, but which a mechanical routine of teaching forces to lie dormant and does its best to stifle. Thus can earnestness of will and originality of thought strike new paths where all seemed trite and hackneyed.

In classical studies, also, the discovery is beginning to dawn on our conception that, by a resolute sacrifice of the useless, if not hurtful, pedantry of minute erudition in non-essentials, and a reform in our cumbrous and forbidding text-books, by strictly confining the task to be imposed on the memory, to the *grammatical essentials* alone, *but making that part of the work thorough*, we could save much precious time. It would then be possible to do justice to other matters in which professed classical scholars are often found woefully deficient, and yet there might still be time enough left for that to which the learning of grammatical forms is only accessory—the spirit and beauty of ancient literature. Every one knows and acknowledges that a command of clear, forcible, and elegant language is an instrument of power to whoever possesses it. How valuable for that end the study of ancient models would be, I surely need not say; but what mockery it seems for us to descant on the beauty of the ancient classics before those whose time has been mostly spent in painfully climbing the ricketty scaffolding of grammar, and few of whom, in all probability, shall ever have access to the inner temple.

Even in our own familiar mother-tongue, the grammars that are put into our hands to study its laws, genius, and resources are as dry as it is in the power of the laborious and well-meaning compilers to make them. A conscientious student that has wearily plodded through their pages, must rise from the task, with but a dim conception of the peculiar physiology, beauty, and power of the noble language which, outside barbarian as I am, I feel I can not sufficiently admire.

Surely, it would be well to attempt a reform in this matter, so that our English, Latin, and Greek grammars should be more truthful and living reflections of the language whose laws and constitution they profess to set forth.

If we could only see our way out of these "Circumlocutory Offices" for the *not* teaching of classical literature, if we could transform them into linguistic gymnasiums, what a different tale we should have to tell of the state of classical learning among us! Then, indeed, our pupils could understand what we mean when we tell them that it is not enough to translate the text of their author into more or less accurate English; that it is not enough to understand his meaning, but they must *feel* it; they must try to catch the inspiration of that wonderful beauty. If they would become models themselves, in their day and generation, they must strive to transfuse into their own imitations that crystalline transparency of thought, that precision of expression, that wise economy of their wealth of imagery, which, compared to the lavish and aimless display of the would-be-eloquent and poetical among us, is like the pure sheen of a few costly gems, compared to the tawdry glare of common jewelry.

Those teachers who will dare to strike a new path, and make the classical course at once shorter and more effectual, will have many difficulties to encounter—the want of text-books suited to their views and the usual prejudice against innovators; they must expect to be accused of superficiality, of "quackery." But "*e pur si muove*," the earth is moving for all that, and the day of success is not far distant.

One of the latest and most promising attempts in this line of reform, is a new work entitled "The Mastery of Languages," accompanied by hand books for the application of the method to German and French, soon, I hope, to be followed by others for Latin and Greek. In my next article, I will try to give some account of it. Suffice it to say for the present, that great, indeed must be the merit of a work that has extorted a hearty and unqualified approval from so fastidious a critic as the editor of *The Nation.*

The author is Th. Prendergast, an Englishman. The work has been republished in this country by Appleton & Co., of New York. Every teacher of language, ancient or modern, ought, *for his own sake*, to procure at once a copy, and judge for himself.

T. E. S.

GRAMMATICAL VALUE OF THE DISCRIMINATION BETWEEN THOUGHT AND THE OBJECT OF THOUGHT.

BY PROF. HENRY N. DAY, NEW HAVEN, CT.

(*Concluded.*)

Still more strikingly would the importance of this discrimination show itself in determining the proper significance and use of the particular mood-forms. The whole doctrine of grammatical mood, it must be confessed, is unsettled; how many and what moods there are in a given language; what are the proper forms in authorized use; what forms of language should be used to express given forms of thought, or, on the other hand, what must be the interpretation in a given use;—all these questions are presented in our grammars in a manner exceedingly vague and perplexing to the learner. And it is obvious that the difficulty springs from the simple failure to recognize the true function of grammatical mood, which is to express the modifications of the copula, not those of the predicate. We have, for a single example, in Schmitz and Anthon's edition of Zumpt's Latin Grammar, eighty-four pages devoted to *The Moods;* one-half of which space is given to the infinitive, participle, gerund, and supine, the very inclusion of which under the moods is significant enough. The treatment of the moods professes to exhibit the proper use of them for expressing thought and the proper interpretation of them when used; that is, to explain the forms in language in reference to the forms of the thought. Yet almost every page, definition, and stated principle is characterized by vagueness, blindness, and self-contradiction; and the learner is left in the worst confusion and perplexity. The indicative thus, it is said, expresses a fact, reality; the subjunctive a conception. As if mood has any thing to do with facts, realities; is ever any thing else than a conception in the broad sense in which we must suppose this term to be used in this treatise. In the line of Horace: "Naturam expellas furca, tamen asque recurret," *expellas* expresses a fact, a reality, as much as *recurret*, and no more. Fact, reality pertain to the object of thought, not to the thought itself. Mood also ever pertains to the thought, the conception, in the sense in which the term is used in this grammar. Is the thought, the conception, unmodified? The indicative is used. Is the thought, the conception, modified? Then the particular mood-form employed shows how. How simple a thing it is to explain the proper use of the different moods in the clear light of this distinction—how impossible otherwise!

Zumpt could not but recognize the infinitive, the participle, the gerund, and the supine as being embraced under the moods, for he had no notion of the broad distinction between these forms of the verb and the proper mood-forms—the former containing no copula, no thought-element; the latter containing it modified or unmodified. The mood-distinction lies there—in the copula; and it leads only to error and confusion not to place it there; to imagine it in the predicate, as many of Zumpt's explanations imply. In fact, the participle must be recognized to be a mood of the verb as much as the indicative or the imperative, if the distinctions of verb-forms lie only in the modifications of the predicate.

This distinction between the thought-element and the object-element in language leads at once to a division of so-called adverbs. Such words as *certainly*, *probably*, *perhaps*, *necessarily*, are properly often, although not always, modifiers of the copula. They are sometimes called *modal adverbs*; it would be better to separate them entirely from the adverbs, and denominate them simply *modals*. In the sentence, "He probably wrote rapidly," "*probably*" modifies *wrote* in no such way as *rapidly*; the action predicated is modified as *rapid*, not at all as *probable*. It is the assertion which is modified as contingent, not the writing.

The distinction further indicates the discrimination between a *phrase* and a *clause*. A phrase never contains a proper copula or thought element; a clause always. To this discrimination, use has steadily tended; and if there has been confusion and variance, it is only the fate common to words, which, at first synonymous, come, for important objects in speaking, at length to be broadly distinguished in meaning.

The distinction equally presents the true discrimination between the *preposition* and the *conjunction*. The preposition is a form-word pointing to relations between objects of thought; the conjunction is a form-word pointing ever to relations between forms of thought. When I say, "James *with* John ascended the mountain," I present the object *James* modified by the associate *John*;—I fix attention on this modified subject. When I say, "James *and* John ascended the mountain," I present two subjects, and of course two thoughts; no longer a merely modified subject. The distinction is obvious and important. Our more recent grammars, it may be observed, generally fail utterly to give any exposition of the peculiar function of the conjunction. Their definition presents it only as a connective, and does not discriminate it from the preposition. "The conjunction connects words or sentences." But does not the preposition equally connect? Does not *with* in the phrase, "John with James," connect as fully as *or* in the clausal expression, "John or James"? The preposition and the conjunction both connect, the one as properly and as fully as the other; but they connect differently. The one connects objects of thought indicating at the same time the kind of relation between them; the other connects forms of thought, indicating at the same time the kind of relation between them. This view of the conjunction as connecting forms of thought, although perhaps not clearly discriminating thought itself in its divers forms from objects of thought, was early and extensively held by grammarians. Vossius, to go back no farther, says: "Conjunctis est quæ sententiam sententiæ conjungit"; and Harris says: "The conjunction connects not words but sentences." The compound subject, as in the expressions "*two and three* equal five", "John and James met," gave Horne Tooke a plausible but not really valid objection to this view, and Murray and the most of recent grammarians have followed in his opinion. But the two parts of a compound subject imply really two movements of thought—two thoughts,—not simply a single thought of one object modified; and the predicate is asserted of both separately, not of a single object modified as in the subjects, "two with three," "John with James."

The distinction further makes clear the difference between adverbial and proper conjunctive clauses. The chief difficulty here arises out of the fact that proper adverbial forms, forms originally and properly modifying attribute words, are borrowed to express relations in the mere thought. We have words thus used both as adverbs and as conjunctions. Of this class in English are *as*, *however*, *since*, *then*, *while*. The principle, decisive in such cases, is this: if the clause or phrase which either of these particles introduces, modifies the copula—the assertion or judgment in the principle member—it is conjunctive; if it modifies the attribute predicated, it is adverbial. Thus in the expressions, "The air was chilly on account of the dampness, while the thermometer was not low"; "Let me die, since I have seen thy face"; "As the deed is done, let us dismiss care", the particles are conjunctive. In the following, they are adverbial: "While he lived, he blessed his soul"; "This is the third day since these things were done"; "As ye have heard, so do."

THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS.

BY PROF. WM. F. PHELPS.

[*Concluding Article.*]

XI. *In the arrangement of a Daily Programme of Exercises for the school, the* STUDY HOURS OF EACH CLASS *and the* SUBJECTS ASSIGNED *to each, as well as the periods allotted to the recitations, should be carefully laid down and as carefully observed.*

Nothing conduces more to success in life, perhaps, than a judicious distribution of time in the discharge of our various duties. This habit should be impressed upon the character of every pupil in our public schools, by the constant exemplification of the maxim heretofore quoted,—"A time for everything and everything in its time." It is not enough that the teacher should command his pupils in a peremptory manner to study. He *must provide a plan whereby each member of every class shall know precisely* WHEN *he is to study and* WHAT *he is to study.* The entire session is to be occupied in recitation, recreation, and study. The Programme should clearly show the period of time to be devoted to each, and then it will be a comparatively easy task for the teacher to secure useful occupation among the pupils not immediately engaged in recitation, and thus prevent disorder, idleness, and mischief among them. Much care will be needed in the adjustment of the hours and subjects of study, and it will require considerable firmness and perseverance in the teacher to carry out such a plan at first. But time and patience will bring all out right. Every day's repetition of such a programme will make it easier for all concerned, and what was at first irksome, will in due time become familiar and pleasurable, beause it will gradually ripen into a fixed habit. In order more clearly to illustrate the proposition under discussion, I subjoin a programme of a country school classified according to the principles heretofore laid down in this series of papers. The first column indicates the hours, the second the exercises, the third the time devoted to each, while the fourth, fifth, and sixth columns indicate the studies and other occupations of the classes when not engaged in recitation:

DAILY PROGRAMME.

			Minutes.	A Class.	B Class.	C Class.
				Study.	Study.	Study.
9 to 9:15		Devotional Exercises	15			
9:15 to 9:40	A	Written Arithmetic	25		Ment. Arith.	Write—Read
9:40 to 9:50	C	Read and Spell	10	Grammar	"	
9:50 to 9:55		Physical Exercises	5			
9:55 to 10:10	B	Mental Arithmetic	15	Grammar		Draw.
10:10 to 10:35	A	Grammar	25		Reading	Recess.
10:35 to 10:50		RECESS.	15			
10:50 to 11	C	Mental Arithmetic	10	Ment. Arith.	Writ'n Arith	
11 to 11:20	B	Read	20	"		Write numb'r
11:20 to 11:40	A	Mental Arithmetic	20		Writ'n Arith	Draw.
11:40 to 12	B	Written Arithmetic	20	Read		Recess.
12 to 1		NOON.	60			
1 to 1:15		Study Hour	15			
1:15 to 1:35		Writing	20			
1:35 to 1:45	C	Read and Spell	10	Geography	Geography	
1:45 to 1:50		Sing	5			
1:50 to 2:10	B	Geography	20	Geography		Write—Read
2:10 to 2:35	A	Read	25		Geography	Recess.
2:35 to 2:50		RECESS.	15			
2:50 to 3:5	C	Geography	15	Spelling	Grammar	
3:5 to 3:25	B	Grammar	20	Writ'n Arith		Draw.
3:25 to 3:55	A	Geography	25		Spelling	Write copy.
3:55 to 4	B	Spell	10	Writ'n Arith		Recess.
4 to 4:10	A	Spell	10		Grammar	
		DISMISS.				

In arranging the hours and subjects of study at school, it is well to select such branches for school study as can not so well be pursued at home. There is usually a choice in this matter. The more difficult subjects should be reserved for the attention of the pupil when he can receive aid from the teacher. Arithmetic being an exact science, and comparatively easy of acquisition on account of this exact character, may be profitably and successfully studied out of school hours. The lessons in spelling being a matter mostly of the memory, may also be thus pursued, and, according to circumstances, the teacher may set apart such subjects for home consideration as he may deem best, taking care to see that his arrangements are respected by the pupils, and not left to be decided according to their varying impulses and caprices.

In such a programme, wisely conceived and firmly executed, the teacher will find his greatest security against idleness, disorder, and imperfect lessons. To keep children out of mischief, they must be constantly employed. To secure the ends for which they are sent to school, they must be *usefully* occupied. To prevent their labor from running to waste, it must be wisely directed, and not left to their individual option. To develop within them those habits of order, efficiency, and self-reliance which are the great key to success in life, the teacher must provide as carefully for their *preparatory* as for their final work in the class-room.

XII. *A careful and accurate register of attendance should ever be kept by the teacher, and transmitted to the proper school officers at the close of his term of service.*

Our common school statistics are notoriously and deplorably defective. It seems almost impossible to secure accurate figures as to attendance upon our schools, and yet it is of the highest importance that such facts should be obtained as a basis for the distribution of the public funds and for determining the value and efficiency of the system. The primary difficulty seems to lie in the carelessness and inefficiency of the teachers. A neat and systematic register demands but little time and attention, while the *habit* of keeping such books properly is a most valuable one in its influence upon the teacher himself. It is one of the best indications that can be afforded of the character of the school and its teacher. No neat, orderly, accurate teacher will ever be found keeping a slip-shod, illegible register. But such a book will usually be a fitting indication of his true character as a scholar and skillful workman.

Class registers should also be kept of the names and ages of the pupils even if no account be entered of the character of their performances in class drill.

Of this latter subject it may be proper to remark, that in a large school with numerous classes a teacher can scarcely attempt minutely to mark the standing of the pupils at each lesson without seriously interfering with the vivacity and thoroughness of the exercise. Without discussing the point at length, therefore, it may be stated that a long observation and experience have confirmed me in the conviction that the time spent in carrying out an elaborate system of marking the lessons, is just so much subtracted from their efficiency and value. Monthly written examinations afford far better indications of scholarship and progress than the hasty records kept under the pressure of the class-room, and teachers will consult the true interests of their pupils by abandoning class records and adopting the plan of periodical examinations whose results may be deliberately estimated and as deliberately recorded in the debit and credit accounts of the school.

Finally, as a sequel to the thorough organization of the school on a plan similar to that herein suggested, *let me urge upon the teachers of our common schools the duty and policy of a frequent visitation of the parents of their pupils.* School troubles more frequently arise from a want of intimacy and sympathy between teachers and the parents of their pupils, than from any other cause. Teachers should often visit the homes of the children, and parents should testify their interest in the welfare of their offspring by frequent visitations of the school. One of the best means to secure the latter, is for the teacher to take the initiative. All persons are more or less alive to the courtesy and neighborly feeling. Let the teacher, then, lay the parents under obligations to visit the school by often visiting *them.* Let him strive by every just means to strengthen the ties of personal friendship between himself and his employers and his professional trials will be correspondingly diminished in magnitude and frequency, while his work will prosper in his hands, and he will be enabled to rejoice at the increasing evidences that he is waxing strong in influence and power over those whose characters he would mould into symmetry and beauty, and whose lives he would render useful and happy.

TEACHING GRAMMAR IN UNGRADED SCHOOLS.

THE MAIN TROUBLE AND ITS CURE.

BY PROF. W. H. YOUNG.

I write:

Of Ungraded Schools, because just here, very properly, I think, educational thought is centering:

Of teaching Grammar, because herein help is still greatly needed,—not that enough has not been said of late in the MONTHLY, and *well* said, on *what* is to be taught and *how*, for I see not how Mr. White's treatment of these points can be improved; but because there is, especially in our ungraded schools, a great lack of something else in teaching grammar, besides the *matter* and *manner* of instruction.

I mean a lack of grammatical *knowledge,—readiness* and *accuracy* on the part of teachers. That there is a great lack here, every one fit to judge well knows. That such lack is incompatible with good, and hence successful teaching, is equally plain. Nothing not well known, can be well taught. No art which, like that of using a language correctly, depends so largely upon correct practice for thorough learning, can be well taught by him who is not well skilled therein. Here, I think, is the first great trouble in teaching grammar in ungraded schools. (I say "ungraded schools", since these, in the main, are less well manned than graded schools.)

It will be seen that the trouble here pointed out is a foundation trouble,—a radical difficulty. It can be met only by radical means. The teachers themselves must *learn more* grammar and *learn* it *better*. No one who has studied barely one or two, or even more common-school grammars (English, of course,) unless with great reading, observation, and *practice*, is well qualified to teach grammar. It may, I think, be said that no young teacher, whose study of grammar is thus limited, is qualified to teach it.

The *theory* of language is best understood by comparison: hence it is always recommended to study at least one other language, in order to get a fair understanding of one's own.

The *art* or *correct use* of language, is a thing of careful study, close observation, and long practice.

These two propositions point out two lines of study, indispensable, it seems to me, to the good teacher of grammar:

First, the study of the language in its birth, historical, and philosophical development, and relations to other tongues of the same family and neighborhood; and

Next, the most thorough and comprehensive study and practice of its more recent and present forms and usages.

The advantages of such a course can not be told. Its importance to the teacher can not be overstated. The only allowable substitute is the mastery of several other languages, as commonly taught, to ground one in the theory of language; and long years' practice of his own to give its use.

Now is such a course in reach of those to whom it is pointed? Yes, right at their hand. It is found in two or three books, the names of which I will mention even at the risk of seeming to play the advertiser. Of these one is Prof. Fowler's English Language, a plain, clear, concise setting forth of the language in its origin, historical, and philosophical development, and relations to kindred tongues, with full tables of analysis and copious indexes. A book of similar kind, but more costly, less recent, and not so well adapted to the plan in view, is that of Dr. Latham, of London. Either of these works, carefully studied, can not fail to be full of interest and profit to the young teacher of grammar. They treat, however, mainly of the *theory* of the language. He who would be made a grammarian, must have vastly more. He needs, with this copious illustration, exhaustive discussion *pro* and *con*, comparison of authorities, and, what seems to me most indispensable, such a variety and number of *exercises* as can not fail, if faithfully done, to ground him, not only in the *principles*, but in the *facts* of the language in all their minutiæ and detail. There is but one book covering this ground, and that is Brown's Grammar of Grammars,—a book that no young teacher and few old ones can afford to be without. Of the particular merits or demerits of the author as a grammarian, or an author, this is not the place to speak; but of the *book*, I do not hesitate to say that it is a most complete and exhaustive depository of English grammatical science, history, authority, usage, and instruction.

But are these books to be *studied?* Yes, STUDIED. It involves labor, I know; but what that is excellent does not? Brown never made a truer remark than "it is imposture to pretend that grammar is easy." Let these books be taken up and studied, paragraph by paragraph, especially the didactic parts; let their reasonings be carefully weighed; let their authorities be duly compared, and let their exercises be faithfully done, and the student will gain a vantage ground that will serve him, *as a teacher*, a purpose less good only than the study of several foreign languages and years of practice. With this vantage ground, the deeper interest growing out of it, and then good methods, such success may be looked for in teaching grammar even in ungraded schools, as will gratify the teacher, profit the pupil, and satisfy the public,—neither of which ends can now be claimed.

ARITHMETIC: HOW, AND HOW MUCH?

The questions here suggested may have little claim to attention by reason of their novelty, still I am convinced that many teachers of large experience, would be very thankful for a satisfactory answer. Those who demand that an educational journal should serve them instead of a popular novel, would doubtless prefer that such trite topics should give place to newer themes; but the real interests of education seem now rather to call for a patient and thoughtful discussion of fundamental principles and the methods which they involve. The science of education, seems at present not a little in sympathy with the science (?) of politics. Something of reconstruction is needful in both. In both there are some established principles that we can ill afford to abandon. Neither in the one sphere nor the other is it true that every thing that has been is all wrong, nor are we again any nearer the truth when we assent to the proposition that all changes proposed are calculated to mend existing wrongs. There is less reason for the friends of progressive education to rest their expectations upon grand schemes that contemplate radical and sudden revolutions, than to hope for the attainment of desirable results from the gradual modification of existing methods, a modification based upon good sense and sound philosophy. I am well aware that this method is too conservative to suit the average impulsiveness of the American mind, but every year in our history is making it more needful that changes in our educational methods should be wrought by patient and constant forces; for every year is adding to the extent and complication of the machinery through which the influence of every change must be carried. Therefore there is the greater need that careful thought should take the place of crude and impatient dogmatics. I hope that what may be said upon the subject of this article will not be found at variance with the spirit of these general statements.

We may well concede that there is some ground for the complaint that Arithmetic has hitherto consumed more than its legitimate share of the time in our public schools. I doubt whether the evil has been at all peculiar to public schools in distinction from private, but it is to the former that we now have special reference. In conceding that an undue measure of time has been given to Arithmetic we have not intended to intimate that pupils are now really taught more mathematics than they need to know. It is an occasion of surprise that so much patient and protracted instruction has produced so little valuable fruit. May it not be that even less labor, differently applied, would secure much more satisfactory results? Perhaps we may make a threefold division of the arithmetic that is embraced in our common-school course. In the first division we would include the most obvious and rudimental facts and combinations,—such combinations as could, with ease, be presented objectively; and such facts as could be given in simple tables, that might be readily learned and retained in memory.

The second division we would have taken in all that is commonly termed mental arithmetic; comprehending a great deal of youthful tribulation.

The third division is that which is often termed written or practical arithmetic, so much, for example, as is contained in Greenleaf's or Eaton's Common School Arithmetic, or Robinson's Practical.

Possibly so much as is embraced in the first of the three divisions might be profitably taught in the primary schools, but from the burdens of the second we would largely relieve pupils under the age of fourteen years. Mental arithmetic is emphatically an abstract study, and the minds of children are emphatically not prepared to thrive upon abstractions. They need rather to be laying in store materials upon which the faculties of maturer years may work. Some methods of teaching Mental Arithmetic seem to be based upon the idea that the value of any process is directly proportioned to the intellectual effort that it necessitates. Yet very few men would prefer to cut wood with a dull axe, rather than with a sharp one, simply because the former would demand more vigorous exercise. We should seek to secure the largest measure of real zest in the mental labor that is required of the young. Can we not do this most readily by skillfully adapting the work assigned to the condition and wants of the mind? It is hardly reasonable to expect that children will be as patient as those who have been disciplined by the experience of a lifetime, in waiting for the results of labor. There is for them a pleasant and healthful stimulus in seeing and feeling how much they can do.

Would it not then be well to dispense altogether with the slow, and to most pupils, the painful process of committing questions to memory, and solving them, without the aid of the book? The benefit that accrues to the mind, from acting while in a state of perplexity, is of the nature of the improvement of a delicate machine, that results from its continuous running when the friction of every pivot is at the maximum for the want of oil.

We would then recommend that the study of mental arithmetic be put later in the course than it now is, and that the methods of teaching it should aim more directly toward securing a comfortable rapidity of progress in gaining practical familiarity with the important mathematical processes that it is desirable to work mentally.

Something of the same economy might be profitably exercised in regard to the study of written arithmetic. Unless we misjudge, our text-books upon this branch are still cumbered with many things that lessen their adaptedness to the proper work of the school-room. All the arithmetics, intended for our Grammar Schools, so far as we are acquainted with them, contain quite a proportion of examples that presume upon a greater maturity of the reasoning powers than we have any right to expect in these schools. We now refer to the average capacity. If this opinion be correct, then a better arithmetic than we now have would be simpler, containing a systematic and natural arrangement of only such, and so many of the principles of Arithmetic, and such applications of them as scholars fourteen or fifteen years of age ought to conquer in order to have their attainments in mathematics along-side of their knowledge of Language, Geography, History, Natural Science, etc. There would, of course, be no objection to an appendix that should provide extra work for such as have more than the average propensity for this branch of study.

But while our present books are in use, would it not be well if teachers were encouraged to a careful exercise of their judgment in omitting such portions of the book as impose too heavy a burden upon their pupils? A scholar may often receive great good, from being held up to a work that he is fully competent to achieve, but the result is quite different when an attempt is made to compel the pupil to do what he honestly thinks he can not do, and what the teacher has no reason to believe he can do. We may properly encourage scholars to make attempts where the possibility of success is problematical, but to demand success, in such cases, would be quite unreasonable.—*M. C. S, in Mass. Teacher.*

[We think the writer is wrong in placing all of mental arithmetic before written, but we indorse the idea that less arithmetic should be taught.—Ed. Monthly.]

POSSESSIVE CASE.—No. IV.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

It was my intention to discuss *seriatim* the different whims that have been advanced as to the proper mode of writing the possessive singular of nouns ending in the sound of *s* or *z*; but I have concluded to close the subject in this article, and leave the elaboration to some future time.

Oliver B. Peirce in the third edition of his Grammar published in 1837, said:

> "When the name does end with the sound of *s*, or *z*, (no matter what represents the sound,) the apostrophe only, is used; as, The witness' sake. Conscience' sake. Moses' ministers. Felix' reply. Jabez' unwillingness."
>
> "When the use of the possessive case would produce a combination of sounds both hard of expression and unpleasant to the ear, how should the possessorship be represented?"
>
> "It should be represented by the use of the relative '*of*'; as, 'the rose' fragrance', would be better by saying 'the fragrance *of* the rose'."

This is the most extreme position that has been taken by any grammarian. I might quote pages on the mode of writing the possessive of singular nouns ending in the sound of *s* or *z*, as I did ten years ago in the *Indiana School Journal*, illustrating all shades of opinion from Peirce's to Goold Brown's. Brown says in his Grammar of English Grammars:

> "The chief exceptions, or irregularities, in the formation of the possessive *singular*, are, I think, to be accounted mere poetic licenses; and seldom, if ever, to be allowed in prose." "But in prose the elision should be very sparingly indulged; it is generally less agreeable, as well as less proper, than the regular form."

It is strange that some fastidious grammarian has not condemned as harsh such possessives as Doddridge's, Coleridge's, Partridge's, Savage's, Gage's, Walsh's, Marsh's Beamish's, Mackintosh's, Birch's, Rich's, Church's, Trench's, French's, witch's, etc.

The same reasons that are given for mutilating the only case-inflection left to English nouns, would be equally applicable against the addition of *es* for the plurals of nouns ending in the sound of *s* or *z*, or its use in the third person singular, indicative, active, of verbs ending in the sound of *s* or *z*. Is there any more hissing in James's, Vance's, etc., than in conscience, hisses, glasses, seizes, sauces, etc.?

The whole question must be referred to usage, and I feel safe in saying, after more than fifteen years' close observation of standard literature, that the additional *s* is used in the formation of the possessive singular of nouns ending in the sound of *s* or *z* three times as often as it is omitted. Those that make the mistake of saying *Bullions'* and *Davies'* instead of *Bullions's* and *Davies's*, are apt to say *Bullion* and *Davy* instead of *Bullions* and *Davies.* To say "this book is James' ", is to me the height of the ridiculous.

The only allowable exceptions in prose to the general rule that the possessive singular should be formed by the addition of *'s* to the nominative, are a few possessives which the word *sake* follows and the possessive idea is nearly, if not entirely lost *Conscience' sake*, *distinctness' sake*, *completeness' sake*, *shortness' sake*, emphasis' sake, goodness' sake, are examples. Anthon has *distinction'* sake, Young and Cudworth *distinction* sake, and Crosby and Cudworth distinction's sake.

I have seen nearly one thousand instances of the possessive *Moses's*, and *Hastings's* occurs about three hundred times in the Boston edition of Burke's Works.

MRS.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, O.

PROF. W. D. HENKLE—*Dear Sir:* Is the title Mistress, or Mrs., applied to married ladies, to be pronounced *Mis'-tress* or *Mis'-sis*? Would it be *wrong* to use the first pronunciation in introducing a married lady, or in speaking of her? Webster defines the term *Missis* as being a contraction of the word *Mistress.* Which of the two words, in this case, would be in accordance with the best or prevailing usage? I would be pleased to see your answer to these questions in the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

Yours respectfully, ——— ———.

The question under dispute may be decided by a reference to usage. Both *Miss* and *Mrs.* are contractions of *mistress.* Miss is applied to unmarried females of the genus *homo*, and *Mrs.* to married females of the same genus. Now as the contraction *Miss* is not pronounced *mistress*, so *Mrs.* ought not to be pronounced *mistress.* By pronouncing the first *miss* and the second *missis*, we make a useful distinction.

Webster's New Dictionary under the fifth meaning says, "A title or term of address, now unusual, being superseded by the abbreviated form *Missis*, which is written *Mrs.*

"Mrs. An abbreviation of *mistress*, but pronounced mĭs'sis."—*Webster.*

" *Miss*, at the beginning of the last century, was appropriated to the daughters of gentlemen under the age of ten. *Mistress* was then the style of grown-up unmarried ladies, though the mother was living, and, for a considerable part of the century, maintained its ground against the infantine term of miss."—*Todd.*

Worcester says *mistress* is pronounced "colloquially, in connection with a proper name, *mĭs′ sis*; as, *Mistress or Mrs.* (mĭs′ sis) *Smith.*"

"It [*mistress*] is the proper style of every lady, who is mistress of a family, or married, and not entitled by birth, or in right of her husband, to a higher style.—As a prefix or title, it is, in writing, commonly abbreviated into *Mrs.*; as, *Mrs.* Siddons".—*Worcester.*

"The same haste and necessity of despatch which have corrupted *Master* into *Mister*, have, when it is a title of civility only, contracted *Mistress* into *Missis.*—Thus, *Mrs.* Montague, *Mrs.* Carter, &c., are pronounced *Missis* Montague, *Missis* Carter, &c. To pronounce the word as it is written, would, in these cases, appear quaint and pedantic."—*Walker.*

"Mrs. An abbreviation of *mistress*, the common title prefixed to the name of every married lady, and colloquially pronounced *mis′ sis.* In *England*, the title is also prefixed to the names of elderly unmarried ladies."—*Webster's old Dict.*

"MISTRESS is a title used in addressing or speaking of married ladies."—*Williams's Topical Lexicon.*

It will be noticed that he does not give the pronunciation when used.

DRAWING.

One of the most glaring anomalies in our system of public graded schools is, that in the making up of the "per cents" for promotion, several important studies, regularly taught in the grades, are ignored. So far as we can learn, the promotion of a pupil does not depend on success in Drawing, or Composition, or Music, or Calisthenics. Now there can be no doubt that this discrimination is a very baneful hindrance to the cultivation and development of a national taste for the beautiful and highly useful art of which we are speaking.

Of course it is granted, that the classification of scholars even in the best graded schools must, on any principle of promotion, be short of perfection. Nor do we insist that every study that may be temporarily on trial in the Course should be included in the making up of certificates for promotion; but we do claim that before a true People's College curriculum can be drawn up, before the vital question, "What knowledge is of most worth?" can be extensively understood, the friends of education must in public discussions recognize the fact that there are in our systems of graded schools indefensible inconsistencies.

We claim that drawing, instead of being thrust into the background, is equal and should be allowed to be equal with any in the curriculum. We claim that it is one of the knowledges of most worth; and though we may be charged with temerity in appearing to attempt the solution of the great question, we respectfully offer a statement of the grounds of our position.

The work of the teacher includes the training of the faculties of the pupil. All training worthy the name, must include exercise of the faculties—work to be done. The observative or perceptive faculties derive no real benefit from merely gazing at objects —from merely hearing or reading theoretical explanations. All true educations consists of the stimulated self-working and self-growth of these same observative faculties. Now if this be true, drawing must be advanced to the earliest part of the course as to time, and to the front as to importance; for it is in its nature the most formative, the most stimulative, and gives the most tangible results by which the condition and caliber of a young pupil's intellect may be estimated. It is, therefore, *the* subject which is best adapted to practically train and to stimulate the self-activity, the self-growth of the faculties.

Drawing, as a medium for the communicating of thought, is the most universally understood, is the most vivid in its impressions, and admits of the most extensive application in supplying the conveniences and elegancies of life. The curriculum of the future, which is daily becoming more definite and tangible to every earnest educator, will be very imperfect unless it in some way provide for the training of the pupil in the practical love of the beautiful, the just, the true, the good. Schoolmasters must break through the prejudices of their own early training, and recognize the truth that a superimposed creed is worthless when in conflict with previous practical-growth.

To the child harmony and truth, and purity and loveliness, are not synonymous terms; his innate love of the beautiful must lead him to the intuitive recognition of the symmetry of justice, of the necessity for truth, and in the practical striving for these he discovers his power to produce, to create, to elect beauty or deformity. Upon his success in drawing from the relation of created things around him, satisfactory responses to the longings of his own heart depends his leisure, his inclination, his ability, to do good to others. Our educators must recognize these truths: to do full duty to the young, the Commonwealth must provide for the formation of correct tastes and habits.

Drawing is the little wicket gate through which the little pilgrims might be led not only into rich and suggestive picture galleries of their own creative genius, but also into Elysian fields of humanitarianism and moral usefulness.

Cincinnati, June, 1868. G. C. W.

INFLUENCE.

It has been said in reference to painting, that "nothing is more commonly accepted than the fact that the characteristic traits of the artist, despite his efforts to the contrary, find their expression upon the canvass. We have heard the masterpieces of Rembrandt pronounced coarse and gross, while those of his contemporary, Vandyke, were invariably spoken of as the embodiment of purity and true refinement. These individualities are noticeable in their portraits of the same persons."

Who then would not prefer a Reubens or a Vandyke to a Rembrandt or a Dora, were he seeking for the likeness of a child?

If this be true of the lifeless canvass, what a lesson does it picture for him who affects the countenance by his attempts to discipline and refine the almost infinitely impressible faculties of the mind and heart, that contribute to the expression of the features! And how assiduous should be his exertion to have all the reflections of his handiwork there suggestive of a noble truthfulness and an exalted virtue!

Who would not prefer the delineations of the rightly thoughtful and active, to those of the careless and the indolent, upon the being of his child, for the development and culture of a pure and noble life? J. K.

OHIO, perhaps, leads all the other States in the Union in the cause of popular education, and the result of it has already been felt. * * * To-day she has more prominent leaders in Congress and in the high places of the nation than any of her sister Commonwealths, and it is a matter of common notoriety that she has furnished this year more strong Presidential candidates for both parties than could possibly be nominated. At the bottom of all this lies her thorough and advancing common-school organization.—*Philadelphia Press.*

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

The following questions were recently used in an examination of applicants for certificates to teach in the public schools of this city. Sixty-nine teachers were examined:

ORTHOGRAPHY.

1. What is the distinction between a *letter* and an *elementary sound?*
2. How many elementary sounds in the English language and into what general classes are they divided?
3. How many and what elementary sounds do *a*, *e*, *i* *o*, and *u* each represent? [Represent each sound by the proper notation.]
4. What is the distinction between a *diphthong* and a *digraph?* Give examples.
5. How many and what sounds have *th* and *ch?* Give examples.
6. What is meant by the *phonic analysis* of words?
7. How many and what sounds compose the words *through*, *bought*, *cease*, and *zealous?*
8. How many and what sounds compose the words *write*, *heir*, *foreign*, and *eight?*
9. What is a *syllable?*
10. What is the distinction between *primary* and *secondary* accent? Give examples.

Spell the following words, and mark the vowel sounds in the accented syllables?

[Ten words to be given by the Examiner.]

READING.

1. Give three or more of the essential qualities of *good* reading?
2. Which is the worse fault in reading, too rapid or too slow an utterance? Why?
3. How may a distinct articulation be best acquired?
4. What are the advantages of an erect posture when reading?
5. By what exercises may the capacity and strength of the lungs be increased?
6. What is *emphasis*, and what is its object?
7. In what ways may a word or phrase be emphasized? Give two or more.
8. What is meant by the *natural pitch*, or key, in reading?
9. Define *circumflex* and describe the different kinds.
10. How may the meaning of words best be taught to children?

Read a few sentences of prose and a stanza of poetry.

[To be selected by the Examiner.]

PENMANSHIP.

1. How many and what kinds of lines are used in writing?
2. How many and what are the *principles* which compose the small letters? (Make them.)
3. What principles combined form the letter *u?* The letter *n?*
4. How many and what are the principles which compose the capital letters? Make them.
5. What is meant by the *slope* of letters?
6. What should be the slope of all straight lines in writing? In printing?

7. What is meant by *connecting lines*, and how should they be made, light or heavy?
8. What should be the height of the long letters *l*, *b* and *k*, as compared with that of the short letters?
9. Why should pupils, somewhat advanced, be required to write across the page, writing the words in lines instead of in columns?
10. What is the best method of holding the pen? Why?

Write these sentences as a specimen of your hand-writing:

> "Too low they build who build beneath the stars."
> "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom."

ARITHMETIC.

1. What is the distinction between *concrete* and *abstract* numbers? Give examples of each.
2. On what principle may *ten* be added to a figure of the minuend and *one* to the next higher figure of the subtrahend?
3. If the same number be *added* to both terms of a proper fraction, how will its value be affected?
4. What is the distinction between a *simple* ratio and a *compound* ratio?
5. Multiply the sum of $\frac{3}{8}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ by their difference.
6. What part of a day is 1 hour and 20 minutes?
7. Reduce $\frac{3}{250}$ to a decimal, and divide the result by 400.
8. What is the interest of $450 for 3 years 2 months and 21 days at 8 per cent.?
9. A flag-pole 80 feet in length, broke, in falling, into two unequal pieces, the shorter being $\frac{3}{5}$ of the length of the longer. What was the length of each piece?
10. If 20 men can do a piece of work in 40 days, how long will it take 8 men to do it? (Write the analysis in full.)

GEOGRAPHY.

1. Name two of the proofs that the earth has a spherical form.
2. What is meant by the earth's *orbit?*
3. If the earth's axis were perpendicular to the plane of its orbit, what would be true of the relative length of day and night?
4. What is meant by the latitude of a place?
5. Which is farther north, Columbus or Paris? Quebec or London? New Orleans or Rome?
6. What are the advantages of map-drawing?
7. Name the four largest islands of the West Indies and the five largest islands in the Mediterranean Sea.
8. Name and locate the River Systems of the United States.
9. Name the principal rivers of North America that flow into the Pacific Ocean?
10. What is the Gulf Stream? (Describe it.)

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. What is meant by the number and person of a verb?
2. What does the comparative degree of adjectives denote? How is it formed?
3. Why are personal pronouns so called?
4. What is meant by the antecedent of a pronoun? Give examples.
5. Define voice. How is the passive voice formed?
6. Write a sentence containining a transitive verb in the passive voice, and a noun in apposition.

7. What is the distinction between a preposition and a conjunction? Give an illustration.
8. Parse "burden" and "which" in the sentence, "A *burden which* one chooses, is not felt."
9. Parse "By", "nothing", and "ill", in the sentence, "*By* doing *nothing* we learn to do *ill*."
10. Analyze the sentence, "Those who live in glass houses, should not throw stones."

THEORY AND PRACTICE.

1. What is the difference between the "ABC Method" and the "Word Method" of teaching reading?
2. Why should primary instruction begin with knowledge acquired through the senses rather than with abstract knowledge?
3. What are the three natural steps in teaching a little child to combine numbers?
4. Why should the process of addition be taught before the rule?
5. What do you understand by an "Object Lesson", and why is such instruction valuable?
6. What exercises in the use of language may be used in teaching children? (Give a series of such exercises.)
7. What is the objection to the advancing of classes according to the ability of the more backward pupils?
8. Why should the teacher adapt his instruction to the *average* capacity of his pupils?
9. What are the advantages and disadvantages of "test examinations"?
10. Which should be the teacher's chief aim, training or the imparting of knowledge? Why?
11. Why should a recitation thoroughly test the pupil's preparation of the lesson?
12. What are the other objects of a recitation?
13. What is the distinction between the "question method" and the "topic method" of conducting recitations?
14. What is the distinction between the direct and indirect method of imparting instruction?
15. Which of these methods is preferable? Why?
16. What are the objections to the use of "prizes" as an incentive to study?
17. Why is it important that all our youth form the habit of prompt and cheerful obedience to rightful authority?
18. What is your opinion of the "self-reporting system"?
19. What are the objects of punishment?
20. What relation do moral instruction and training sustain to school government?

Pennsylvania.—We are especially pleased to see that the salaries of the State Superintendent of Common Schools and of the Deputy have been increased,—the former to $2,500 and the latter to $1,800, and both inclusive of the past as well as the current year. This places the educational on a footing of equality, as to compensation, with the other departments of the government. The labor, responsibility and usefulness of the superintendency has long been equal to any and greater than most of the other State offices. This increase is therefore not only just toward the officers, but right as a recognition of the dignity of the cause and of the value of this branch of the public service.—*Penn. School Journal.*

Editorial Department.

WE give up most of our space this month to our excellent contributors, and still have not room for all the contributions received. We are sure that the excellent character of these articles will more than compensate for the leanness of this department.

THE DAYTON MEETING.

The indications are that the meeting of the Association at Dayton will be largely attended, and, in an eminent degree, successful. The schools have closed a very prosperous year, the teachers are in excellent spirits, and their deliberations can but be characterized by great harmony and interest.

We always look forward to the meetings of the Association with peculiar pleasure. They are like grand re-unions of veterans after some strong hold of the enemy has been taken. Such shakings of hands as these meetings of old comrades bring, do the soul good! Troubles, cares, and disappointments are alike forgotten, and hope, courage, and an onward spirit take possession of all hearts. We are going to Dayton to be refreshed and reanimated.

The following programme has been arranged by the Executive Committee:

The Twentieth Annual Meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association will be held in Dayton, commencing Tuesday Evening, June 30th, 1868. The meeting will continue during Wednesday, July 1, and Thursday, July 2.

On Tuesday Evening, June 30th, the Inaugural Address of Prest. Henkle will be delivered.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 1.—MORNING SESSION.

Papers and Discussions.

1. **Memoir of the late Wm. N. Edwards, by W. E. Crosby, of Lima.**
2. **Courses of study for High Schools, by W. A. Converse, Principal of Cleveland High School.**
3. **Discussion by members will follow the reading of this paper.**
4. **Miscellaneous business.**

AFTERNOON SESSION.

1. **Relations of Public Schools to Colleges, by Prof. W. H. Young, of Athens.**
2. **Discussion of the foregoing paper.**
3. **County School Supervision—General Discussion. The first two speakers will be designated by the President.**

EVENING SESSION.

The Annual Address will be delivered by Hon. Harvey Rice, of Cleveland.

THURSDAY, JULY 2.—MORNING SESSION.

1. **How shall the work of Teachers' Institutes be most successfully carried forward? by Hon. J. A. Norris, State School Commissioner.**
2. **Discussion of the foregoing topic.**
3. **The Physical Sciences as a means of culture, by Joseph Sullivant, of Columbus.**
4. **Miscellaneous business.**

AFTERNOON SESSION.

1. Election of Officers.
2. Practical Language Lessons in the School Room, by J. F. Reinmund, Supt. of Public Schools, Lancaster.
3. General discussion of the foregoing topic. The first two speakers will be designated by the President.
4. Miscellaneous business.

Adjournment. M. F. Cowdery, *Ch'n Ex. Com.*

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

We are glad to see that steps have already been taken to make the annual meetings of the National Associations a decided success. Last year, owing to circumstances not necessary to mention, the meeting of the National Teachers' Association was not called, and this caused a postponement of the meeting of the Superintendents' Association and the Normal Association. We trust that the meetings this year may be sufficiently successful to make good what was lost last year, and give a new impetus to the cause of national education. We hope that Ohio may be well represented.

The following announcements have been made:

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The next annual meeting of the National Teachers' Association will be held in the City of Nashville, Tennessee, the 19th, 20th, and 21st days of August next. The Legislature of Tennessee has, by joint resolution, welcomed the Association to the Capitol of the State, and tendered the use of both the Senate Chamber and the Hall of the Representatives for the sessions. Gen. Eaton, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, with the hearty co-operation of the principal educational men of Tennessee, is preparing to receive the Association with one of the warmest welcomes it has ever met. The railroads entering Nashville will carry delegates and members to and from the meeting at half fare. Arrangements are in progress to present an unusually rich programme, and it is hoped that a full representation of the educators of our whole country will be present.

As soon as practicable, another circular will be issued, giving the programme in full, and directions as to the best routes of travel from the East, North, and West.

The National Normal School Association and the National Association of School Superintendents will hold their annual meetings in connection with this meeting. Many of the leading educators of America may be expected, and questions of profound and far-reaching interest will be discussed. John M. Gregory,
Prest. Nat. Teachers' Association.

NATIONAL SUPERINTENDENTS' ASSOCIATION.

The next annual meeting of the National Superintendents' Association will be held in Nashville, Tenn., on Monday, August 17th, beginning at 10 o'clock A.M.

The following topics will be discussed:

1. *School-district Organization*—Territorial unit, school officers, etc.
2. *School Funds*—How best raised (by state or local taxation), how apportioned, how disbursed, etc.
3. *School Supervision*—State, county, and district; how superintendents should be chosen, term of office, etc.
4. *School Statistics*—State and city, items to be reported, basis of same, etc.

The discussion of each of the above topics will be introduced by a brief paper. What is desired is such a free interchange of views as will present the experience of the country.

Hon. Henry Barnard, National Commissioner of Education, has been invited to address the Association. E. E. White,
L. Van Bokkelen, *Sec'y.* *Pres. Nat'l Sup't Association.*

AMERICAN NORMAL SCHOOL ASSOCIATION.

The Annual Meeting of the American Normal School Association will be held in Nashville, Tenn., on Tuesday, August 18.

The Order of Exercises will be as follows:

At nine o'clock A.M., the meeting will be opened for Introductory Addresses and the transaction of business.

At ten o'clock, an Essay will be read by Prof. Geo. M. Gage, Principal of the State Normal School at Farmington, Me. Subject: "Educational Errors."

At eleven and one-fourth o'clock, a Discussion. Subject: "The usefulness of Model Schools in connection with Normal Schools, and the Modes of conducting them."

At two o'clock P.M., an Essay will be read by Prof. John Goodison, of the State Normal School at Ypsilanti, Mich. Subject: "Normal Instruction in Geography."

At three and one-half o'clock, Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, Principal of the State Normal School at Winona, Minn., will present a Report on "The Organization, including Grading and Course of Study and Training, of Normal Schools."

At seven and one-half o'clock, an Essay will be read by Prof. M. A. Newell, Principal of the State Normal School at Baltimore, Md. Subject: "Text-books."

The subjects of the essays will be discussed as far as time shall permit.

D. B. HAGAR, Salem, Mass., *President.*

L. B. KELLOGG, Emporia, Kan., *Secretary.*

MISCELLANY.

WE take great pains in mailing the MONTHLY that no subscriber may fail to receive a single number. When notified that such a failure has occurred—and we receive very few such notifications—we always remail the missing number.

THE perfection of our institute system is a matter of great importance, and we are glad to see that Commissioner Norris is to present a paper on the subject at the Dayton meeting. He has given the needs of our school system careful and earnest thought, and his paper will be of great value. Mr. Norris is most zealously devoted to the work of school reform, and is striving to make his administration of the School Department potent in this direction. He has the high compliment of a unanimous re-nomination by his party as an encouragement to go forward, and we hope that before he leaves the office, he may see the important changes he is advocating, effected.

INSTITUTES.—The Miami County Teachers' Association will hold an institute at Piqua, beginning July 27th, and continuing at least two weeks. The instructors are T. W. Harvey, H. A. Thompson, W. I. Tenney, H. B. Furniss, and E. E. White.

A teachers' institute will be held at Lancaster the week beginning July 27th, and a normal institute of four weeks will be held at Pleasantville beginning June 29th. We have mislaid the circular, and can not give the names of the instructors. Supt. Reinmund, of Lancaster, is the leading instructor, and he is a host.

A normal institute will be held at Circleville beginning July 13th, and continuing four weeks. The instructors announced are C. F. Krimmel, J. C. Drum, and W. H. Wolf.

An institute will be held at Glendale, Hamilton county, the week beginning August 17th. The instructors and lecturers announced are Judge Stanley Matthews, T. W. Harvey, John Hancock, Prof. Robert Kidd, and E. E. White.

The teachers of Athens county will hold a two-weeks' institute at Athens, beginning July 6. Profs. Schuyler, Kidd, Tappan, and Young, instructors.

The Vinton County Teachers' Institute will be held at McArthur for one week, beginning July 20th. Prof. Young, Schuyler, and Kidd will teach.

Profs. Schuyler and Young are to hold a two-weeks' institute in Defiance, beginning with August.

Ohio University.—The Faculty of Ohio University, during the past term, have given normal instruction to large classes in the various common school branches. We understand this is to be a regular feature of the University hereafter.

Cambridge.—The public schools, in charge of Mr. McBurney, have closed a very successful year. They have never before been in so good condition, and the Board has shown its appreciation of this fact by increasing the superintendent's salary $100.

Salem.—Seven pupils graduated from the High School at the close of the school year. The exercises evinced thorough training, and fully sustained the reputation of the school as one of the best in the State. Under the able supervision of Mr. Henkle the Salem schools have reached a high degree of efficiency and thoroughness. They stand well toward the head.

Indianapolis.—The reports of the Board of Education and Superintendent show a remarkable degree of growth and progress in the public schools of this city. The enrollment is now nearly double that of 1864, and the per cent. of attendance which, in many of the schools in 1863, was only sixty per cent., has, for the past six months, been ninety-five per cent. Supt. Shortridge believes in hard work, and he is sustained by a working corps of live teachers.

Wilberforce University.—In 1865 the fine college edifice was destroyed by fire—the work of an incendiary. The trustees unwilling to see an enterprise, so important and much-needed, abandoned, entered on the task of erecting another building. They have laid the foundation and completed the west wing, and are now raising funds to complete the building. We trust that their earnest appeal for public aid will be answered by generous contributions.

Kkox County.—A teachers' association was organized in this county as early as 1838, with Rev. Dr. C. Colton and others as members. Subsequently another was organized by R. R. Sloane, G. W. True, and others. In 1851, 1852, 1853 regular teachers' institutes were held, those in 1851–2 being conducted by Lorin Andrews. These facts show that the parenthetical clause, "if not the first ever held in the county," found in our notice of the institute lately held at Mt. Vernon, should have been omitted.

Changes.—Mr. Watkins has resigned the superintendency of the Marion schools—cause, low salary.——M. S. Turrill has so far recovered his health as to be able again to take his old place as principal of the schools of Cumminsville.——Sidney A. Norton, of Mt. Auburn, Cincinnati, has been appointed professor of Chemistry and Toxicology in the Miami Medical College. He retains his position as teacher of natural science and English literature at Mt. Auburn.——H. Thane Miller has resigned the principalship of the Mt. Auburn Institute, and is succeeded by Rev. A. J. Rowland. Mr. Creery leaves Chickering's Institute to take the position of teacher of Latin and mathematics at Mt. Auburn.——Dr. N. C. Burt has been elected president of the Ohio Female College, and Rev. Mr. Anderson takes the chair of mathematics at Williams College.——Mrs. N. A. Stone. formerly of Massillon, has been appointed to the High School of Akron, at a salary of $1,000.

Salaries Increased.—The salary of Supt. Hancock, of Cincinnati, has been raised from $2,500 to $3,500; that of Supt. Stevenson, of Norwalk, from $1,500 to $2,000; and that of J. K. Myers, of Upper Sandusky, from $800 to $1,000. We take pleasure in making a "note" of such substantial recognitions of valuable services. Our advice to other boards is to go and do likewise.

Wanted.—The Board of Education of Port Washington, Tuscarawas county, wishes to employ a competent principal for their schools—salary $800.——A competent and experienced lady teacher wishes a situation in a good High School.

LETTERS.

Cincinnati, June 16, 1868.

Hon. E. E. White—*Dear Sir:* By your kindness, I would like to offer a few remarks on the question, "How many rotations will a wheel make in being revolved *once* around another of the same diameter." As W. D. H. leaves the question with your readers for a solution, we offer the following reply: "The wheel makes *two* rotations." First reason: An index on the revolving wheel points *twice* to each of the points north, south, east and west. Second: A card attached to the circumference of the moving wheel is wound *twice* around it in *one* revolution. Third: If the moving wheel be *slid* around the other so as to present always the same point to the center of the fixed wheel, the wheel in motion *rotates once.* Now, if we change the *sliding* to *rolling* motion, there will be one additional rotation. Hence our answer: "One *revolution* and *two* rotations." Yours truly,

Carthage, June 23, 1858. T. McCammon Dill.

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Kenyon College, *June* 15, 1868.

Hon. E. E. White—*Dear Sir:* As I am on the point of leaving Kenyon College and Ohio, I regret that I shall not be able to renew my subscription to the Ohio Educational Monthly, to the able conduct of which I am happy to bear my cordial testimony. Yours very truly,

Jas. Kent Stone.

—

Rochester, N. Y., *June* 11, 1858.

My Dear Sir: The perusal of your valuable journal uniformly causes two classes of feeling to spring up in my breast. First, a regret that no such medium of instruction was obtainable when I was a teacher, for I can plainly see that such a help would have been of inestimable value to me; and the other is, that any teacher should feel that he can do without it. It seems to me that such an aid, to almost any teacher, would be, I will not say, worth its cost, but many times the price of it. But I suppose it is to be accounted for by the fact that many teachers engage in the business, not as a profession, but as the best way of obtaining the means of engaging in some other business: hence every dollar that is directed from that object, is regarded as a *dead loss.* But that is, I suppose, one of the things that we can not avoid, even were it desirable. But it may be laid down as certain that such teachers *never will* engage in the business, nor provide themselves with the same helps, as those who engage in it permanently. Yours truly,

Wm. Slocomb.

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AMERICAN TEACHERS.

[This is the concluding portion of an address delivered before the Hamilton County Teachers' Association by Rev. A. D. MAYO, of Cincinnati. We copy it from the Cincinnati *Chronicle*:]

So the path to the most peculiar, and really the most exalted position in true American society, lies through the door of the common school. If there be a class in this country whose influence exceeds that of all others, which is now in a position to do more for the country than all others, it is the teachers in the common schools. This body of young people, a large majority of them young women, will have more to do in forming the minds and characters of the generation that is to establish the new order of American affairs than any other class. In their presence the best children of the Northern States spend the best hours of the best months of their six most impressible years. No class has such an opportunity to fashion the national character; indeed, in numberless instances the teacher is the spiritual father and mother of the little one whose natural parents have failed to be the parents of the life of its soul. I do not propose to argue this point; but the next fifty years will demonstrate that I am right. I do not assert that the common school teacher will always retain this opportunity. With the rising intelligence of the masses, other sorts of instructors of the higher life will be more in demand. But just now, in the formative state of our new republican civilization, the most imperative need of the American people is a higher degree of popular intelligence. The teacher prepares the field for the journalist, the author, the artist, the statesman, the teacher of religion. So the young men and women to whom the children of America are now intrusted, are the class in which we are all most deeply interested, whose position is really most important in American society.

If the people do not appreciate this fact as they ought, the fault chiefly lies at the door of the teachers themselves. The people do show the highest appreciation by placing their children under the almost despotic power of this class. The majority of American teachers are not parents of children, and they can not know the feeling with which the most ordinary father or mother intrusts a child to any teacher during its most sensitive years. No parent at heart believes any human being can love or do so well for the little darling as those to whom God has given it; and, I confess, no daily spectacle in this city is so affecting to me as the faith of the parents of the twenty-five thousand little children who are sent to our common schools. There is no such faith in any church in the city; no such trust in any class as these parents repose in these four hundred teachers. When I hear our teachers complain of social neglect, I am tempted to ask: Pray, what evidence of social confidence do you need? These families might invite you to their social companionship, might make you their personal friends, might give you their money; but now they give you the very treasure of their hearts, their little children, through the most impressible part of their lives. They place them practically under your despotic control through the school hours of the year, with only a difficult and remote opportunity to interfere with your administration. The souls of their darlings are in your hands, and when I have given away my child to be instructed by man or woman, I have given the last proof of respect and confidence. If there is a teacher in America who does not feel this thing, it is time the Republic were relieved of the services of one so shallow and selfish as to value a few outward demonstrations of respect above the best proof of human confidence.

But there is a growing feeling among the better portion of our people that this class of American teachers must do far more than ever before to justify this popular faith, and retain this exalted position. Every American institution is yet an experiment; every professional class is always on trial before the high court of the best intelligence and virtue of the land. So far the common school has done its work better than anything in America, and the people are ready to give their money and their confidence in greater measure than ever, to make it the grander thing which our expanding necessities require. But they will demand more, far more, of the teachers in this school than ever before. They will demand, and will not be denied, the highest possible qualities of mind and heart, of skill and character in those who stand so near the nation's life. They will give the teachers enlarged opportunities to fit themselves, at the public cost, for their arduous profession. They will give them salaries sufficient to support them in respectability and comfort. They will make the public school houses the best houses in America. They will give these young men and women as much social attention and public honor as they deserve. All these things will surely come, and there is not the slightest need that our teachers should leave their legitimate vocation of instruction to haunt lobbies or pull wires for their own personal welfare. The people understand them rather better than they understand themselves. All honor will be given where honor is due. But the people have just now taken a great broom for a general sweeping through every region of American life. They have just swept slave society through fifteen degrees of latitude and drowned it in the Gulf of Mexico. This year they are sweeping out the White House and dusting the Capitol. Next year the great broom will go whirling through the press, and up and down the aisles of the churches. It will descend on the heads of the great corporations that slay and plunder the people. Teachers, set your houses in order, for "in a day and hour, ye know not," all your doors and windows will fly open, and, like the rushing of a mighty wind, that mammoth house-cleaning week will come; and when it ends, every one of you that is unworthy will be found amid the rubbish outside!

The people now demand two things of you, teachers, and you must give it them if you wish to remain in the high place you now attempt to fill.

First—*They demand increased knowledge and skill in your profession.* There is nothing done in America that requires the fine intelligence, the experience of human nature, the personal and social tact demanded in your professsion. To instruct the mind and train the character of one child, is the noblest work done upon earth. To be the teacher, the guardian, the exemplar of fifty children, year after year, is such an office as demands the utmost skill of man or woman. There is no end to the mischief that an ignorant, bungling, untrained teacher can inflict on childhood and society. There is no limit to the achievement of a master workman in this illimitable field. If there be a teacher now satisfied with low intelligence, a torpid mind, a clumsy manner, a happy-go-luck style of work in the school-room, let me say that the time is rapidly passing when such faithless and crude labor will be tolerated. Everything now tends to skilled labor. All the Trades' Unions in Christendom will fail to elevate the mechanic until he makes himself a better workman; for the world will never pay so much for poor work again as it has in the past. The doctors, the lawyers, the clergymen, all understand that their position depends upon the quality of their work. The people have resolved to have skilled labor in the common-school room. The children who are to shape this Republic are too precious material to be experimented upon by educational quacks, or ruined by barbarism, stupidity or conceit in the teacher's desk. It is utterly useless to resist this demand. Every teacher now employed should devote every spare hour to faithful study and general professional improvement. No young person should presume to enter the profession without the most ample preparation at command. The people of this city, another year, will establish a first-rate school for the training of teachers, and its establishment will be a crisis in the profession through this entire region of country. It may be hard upon many a faithful worker, but the emergency demands a relentless policy of purging the American school-room of incapable instructors, and what the people discover to be essential, will surely be done.

Second—*The people demand, beyond this, the complete consecration of the whole manhood and womanhood of every teacher to the great office of public instruction.* The day is passing when this profession can be a general receptacle for all kinds of young people, to be used to fill up a few years of inefficient life. If a young man wishes to pay his board while he studies medicine or law, or applies for the situation of merchant's clerk, he will soon find the school-room is not open to men with such a purpose. If a girl wishes to relieve her parents of her support while she waits to be sought in marriage, she must go elsewhere for employment. Public instruction in America can not be conducted by teachers who come to it with half a mind, regard it a hateful drudgery, and toil with mechanical stolidity while the soul is far away. It demands the complete consecration of all the human powers. It is a thing to work up to, to pray over, to purify one's self for.

And only the teacher that works in such a spirit can know the grandeur of the office or behold the wondrous result of fidelity. Of course, it is honorable to work everywhere; and while our nation was young, and society crude we were obliged to use the best that could be had for teachers. Many of us worked in the school-room, in our youth, as well as we knew how, and hope we did the people no vital harm. But new days demand new agencies, and the time has now come when nothing less than lofty manhood and womanhood, joined to thorough knowledge and skill, can satisfy the people's need.

Last Monday it was my privilege to spend half a day in the examination of what is doubtless the most complete training school for teachers in the Western States. In the upper room of a well-constructed school-house I found a quiet, self-possessed young woman, standing before a group of half a dozen girls, in familiar conversation upon their forenoon's work as teachers of the five hundred children in the rooms below. Their conversation ranged through the whole realm of the life of childhood, striving to analyze its faculties, comprehend its wants, and get into perfect sympathy with its mysterious inward life. Each of the girls told her experience with her class as earnestly as if she knelt at the confessional, under the eye of a criticism as decided as it was sympathetic and kind. Below I saw the working half of the class of "pupil teachers" conducting the various exercises of instruction. Through these rooms moved three "critic teachers," noting everything, advising, preparing to report in due time to the quiet little lady above. In one room a charming "model school" was permanently kept by an experienced young woman. One man, with the title of superintendent, was responsible for the order of the little community, and assisted in the teaching of the older classes. I looked with a delight too deep for expression, upon that beautiful spectacle of a school where five hundred children are taught by these twenty girls, who themselves are learning the finest art of modern life. I marked the deep enthusiasm, the blended firmness, self-possession and gentleness, the sweet spirit of co-operation, with which they went about their duty. I saw in their faces that they felt they had chosen the better part, were living for a purpose, and not troubled overmuch about their position in American society. Then I thought what multitudes of young women in our land to whom God has given wealth and opportunity, and friends and fair hopes in life, are squandering the soul of their womanhood in a wretched career of self-indulgence and selfish pleasure, destroying their bodies, dissipating their minds, and imperiling their souls in an ignoble toil, which begins and ends with their own poor selves. And I felt how weak a creature is a woman when she lives only to pet and push herself into some new opportunity for a useless round of trivial life; and I thanked God, that all over our land are these quiet, refined daughters of the Republic, with noiseless feet and gentle hands, shaping the souls that will shape the nation that shall yet lead the world. They are the people's saints, the true woman's nobility; the prophets of that day when man and woman shall not quarrel for rights, but strive for supremacy in service to man and God.

KNOWLEDGE BEFORE MEMORY.

I have had frequent occasion to urge upon teachers the importance of cultivating the memory of their pupils. The old-fashioned plan of requiring the young to commit to memory precious truths, in those very words in which wise and far-thinking men have handed them down to us, has too much gone out of use. I have felt called upon, therefore, from time to time, to recall to the minds of teachers the unspeakable importance of early exercising the memory of children, and of storing their memories with wise sayings and rules. I would not take back anything I have said on this subject, but rather repeat and reiterate it. At the same time, I am aware that there is an extreme in this direction, and I therefore put in a word of caution.

The danger to which I refer is that of requiring children to commit mere words, to which they attach no meaning, or without their having any real knowledge of the things expressed by the words. Of course there is much in the formulas and rules of science that the immature minds of children can not entirely comprehend, and I am far from saying that a child should commit nothing except what it can comprehend. But whatever in a rule or a doctrine they can understand, should be diligently explained to them, and the ingenuity of teachers should be exercised in awakening the minds of their scholars to the apprehension of real knowledge as a preliminary to the act of committing it to memory.

An example or two will illustrate my meaning. Children at school are required to commit to memory the tables of weights and measures. The exercise is one of acknowledged and indispensable importance. But it is possible for a child to repeat one of these tables with entire glibness and accuracy, pretty much as he would whistle Yankee Doodle, without any apprehension of the actual things which the terms of the table represent. He may learn to say "sixty seconds make a minute, sixty minutes make a degree, three hundred and sixty degrees make a circle," with no more idea of the things expressed by this formula of words, than the parrot who has been taught to say, "You are a big fool." If the teacher will show the child an actual circle, with the degrees, minutes, and seconds marked, and will let him count them for himself, so that he has a real knowledge of the things, he will then not only commit this formula of words to memory more easily, but the knowledge itself will promote his mental growth. He will be feeding on real knowledge, not on its husks. So in learning about inches, feet, yards, rods, and miles, let the teacher, with foot-rule and yard-stick, show what these measures really are, let him by some familiar instance give the child an idea of what a mile is, and then let the memory be invoked to store up the knowledge gained. So with ounces, pounds, and hundred weights. So with gills, quarts, and gallons. The common weights and measures are as necessary in the school-room as are spelling-books and arithmetics. The actual weights and measures, so far as possible, should be exhibited, should be seen and handled, and the child's mind made to grasp the very things which the terms express; that is, he should first get real knowledge, and then he should store his memory with it in exact words and forms of expression.

This is the true mental order. Knowledge first, then memory. Get knowledge, then keep it. Any other plan is like attempting to become rich by inflating your bags with wind, instead of filling them with gold, or attempting to grow fat by bolting food in a form which you can not digest.

Some teachers, in their fear of cramming children with words, spend their whole time and energy in awakening thought, and none in fixing upon the memory the thoughts which have been awakened. They are so much afraid of making children parrots, that they discard rules entirely in teaching, or require pupils to frame rules for themselves. This is to go into the opposite extreme. The rules and formulas of science require the greatest care and consideration, and a large and varied knowledge. Few even of men of learning and of those specially skilled in the meaning of words and the use of language, are qualified to frame scientific rules and propositions. To suppose that young children, just beginning to feel their way into any department of science, are competent to such a task, is simply absurd. Yet this is by no means uncommon. A teacher will conduct a boy intelligently and skillfully through the process of doing a sum in arithmetic, or analyzing a sentence in grammar, and then say to him, "Now, form a rule for yourself, stating how such things should be done." The first step here is right. Take your pupil by the hand, and conduct him through the process or thing to be done. This is necessary to enable him to understand the rule. But when he thus gets the idea, then give him the rule or principle, as it is laid down in the book, in exact and well considered words, and let him commit those words thoroughly to memory, without the change or the omission of a word or a letter.

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Two phrases will cover the whole ground. Knowledge before memory. Memory as well as knowledge.—*In the School-Room.*

PERMANENT TEACHERS.

In nearly one-half of our schools, teachers are changed twice a year. This glaring evil of perpetual change claims special attention. In chemistry, in the arts and agriculture, experiments, however expensive, are often necessary and useful. Persevering trials and repeated failures usually precede, and sometimes suggest valuable inventions. But of all experimenting, the most needless, costly and fruitless, and yet the most common, is the practice of "placing a new hand at the wheel" annually, or even twice a year, in our school-houses. When passing Hurl Gate in a storm, some weeks since, I observed how much the apprehensions of timid passengers were quieted by the simple statement, "Our good captain has run safely on this Sound for forty years." The assurance that an experienced hand guided the helm, at once inspired hope and confidence. But if false economy, prejudice, caprice, or favoritism, placed new captains or pilots twice a year on our noble "Sound Steamers," how soon would they be condemned and forsaken by an indignant public. And yet not a few committees in our districts, from mere whim, or pique, or more often from open nepotism, practice a system of change in teachers which introduces confusion, waste, weakness, discouragement, and often retrogression, in the place of system, economy, efficiency, and progress. This is the prolific source of most serious defects now hindering the usefulness of our schools. True, there has been an encouraging advance for some years in respect to the permanency of teachers. The increase in the number of teachers employed in the same school two or more successive terms, last year, was 33. But my own observation convinces me, that there is a pressing need of far greater progress in this direction.

There are still many towns which retain the old system of semi-annual changes, male teachers in the winter and female in the summer, and even in each successive summer and winter the same teachers are too seldom reëmployed. In such places I find the schools in the lowest condition, with no uniform methods, or well-arranged plan consistently and persistently sustained. This system, or rather want of system, is, to so great an extent, sacrificing the benefits of experience, and hindering thoroughness of instruction, that the subject demands the consideration of the people. In no other way can the genuine improvement of our schools be so easily and economically secured, as by employing better qualified and more permanent teachers.

It often requires nearly a term to initiate a new teacher into the policy of the school visitors, who officially direct his course. He can not perhaps in less time correct the mistakes and bad habits formed under his predecessor, and get his own plans and processes fully into operation, and the result is very likely to be neglect of system. The conviction that there will not be time to carry out any settled policy, and that if commenced, it may be wholly counteracted by an incompetent successor, discourages the attempt. It has long been a conceded point among successful teachers, that a second term in the same school is worth at least one-third more than the first. The school-room is the most unfortunate place for those experiments which "rotation in office" must here involve—entailing a dead loss of more than 30 per cent. of the expenditures made for schools.

A teacher must learn the characters of his pupils, intellectual and moral, before he can successfully teach them. He must make each child a study, and discover both the faults and excellencies of his heart, and the difficult and easy processes of his mind. He must avail himself of every means to find out his entire character, as a discriminating physician watches closely all the symptoms of his patient, in order to understand what ought to be done for him. Until he knows the peculiarities, the attainments, and wants of each pupil, he can not adapt himself to them, and must work in the dark. There is a great variety of methods of illustrating and simplifying each branch and lesson, and only the teacher who understands both his profession and the character of his pupils, can adapt these countless varieties of method to the endless diversities of mind and character. The difficulty of understanding little children is exceeded only by its importance. The internal history of a child is veiled from us, because it no longer lies within the view of our present consciousness and experience. In our eagerness to "put away childish things," we too soon forget how we "spake as a child," "understood as a child," and "thought as a child." But putting himself in the place of his pupil, and becoming literally childlike, renewing his youth, and by the help of imagination where memory fails, reproducing his own early feelings, impressions, difficulties, and varying experience, the teacher can best prepare himself to appreciate the instinctive tendencies, dangers, weaknesses, wants, and primal aspirations of the juvenile mind and heart. He who can thus come down where children are, and be a child again, instead of growing old in heart with advancing years, will ever maintain that rare grace and beautiful ornament of age, the vernal freshness of youthful feeling. Such vivid reminiscences of childhood, and such knowledge of the juvenile character, bring the teacher into close contact and conscious sympathy with his pupils, open their hearts, secure their confidence, and win their love.

The man who retains a school for a single term only, has little opportunity or motive to acquire this accurate discernment of character, this sympathy and sensibility to penetrate the youthful spirit and arouse its dormant faculties, this keen and practised eye to discern what motives to urge upon this pupil, what passions to repress in that, what habits to check in one, what good tendencies to foster in another, what weak points to strengthen here, and what peculiar gifts to develop there. The teacher must thoroughly understand his pupils before he can discover, in each particular case, the best methods to subdue the obstinate, to stimulate the indolent, to arouse the stupid, to make the careless hunger and thirst for knowledge, and to win the confidence and affections of all. Surely, this is a great work, in which the most exalted talents, enriched by the treasures of science and *experience*, will find ample employment for all their resources. However large the school, the teacher should regard an intimate knowledge of each pupil as essential to his thorough instruction. This knowledge can not be obtained intuitively, nor by the facile process of phrenology. It is the result of patient and long-continued observation of individual children, and it is well worth all the labor it costs. This most valuable acquisition belongs only to the permanent teacher. It is his most available capital. Some days usually pass before a stranger in the school-room learns the names and former classification of his pupils. Weeks or months are gone before he is fully prepared to judge of the propriety of this classification; and then so little time of his short term remains that it seems inexpedient to introduce any changes, however much they may be needed.

How different is the position of the permanent teacher on reopening his school. He is cordially greeted and welcomed as a friend and benefactor, by the pupils, whose respect and love he has won. He knows every class and every scholar. On the first day, the school is in working order. The teacher and scholars alike enter upon the new term without any abatement of interest, and at the outset he is able to suit his modes of instruction to the character and standing of each pupil. The teacher, for the time being, stands in the place of the parent. And what results would be realized in the family, were a new step-father or step-mother to be semi-annually invested with parental authority? The picture of anarchy and alienation which this question suggests, needs not here be drawn. The evil is hardly less serious in the school than it would be in the household. What would be the effect of a semi-annual change of clerks and book-keepers in our mercantile establishments, or of agents and overseers in our manufactories, or of financiers in our banks, or of masters of our merchantmen, or commanders of our iron-clads, or of doctors in our families, or of pastors in our parishes? Shrewd men never make such blunders in business matters, although such frequent changes would be less disastrous to worldly enterprises than they are to the best interests of schools. Let us not practically deny the value of experience in the most vital interests committed to our charge, the training of our children.—B. G. NORTHROP, *Sec'y State Board of Education, Ct.*

THE CLASS ROOM.

GEOMETRY—LESSON I.

Our object in this class is to bring the mind to the perception of geometrical magnitudes. The failure of many students of this most useful science, is caused by a lack of accuracy in their perceptions. They are taught to describe magnitudes of whose existence they are totally ignorant, and are asked to reason upon them before they have clearly perceived their essential properties. We can not sow and reap in the same day. As in the body but little growth is made in a year, so in the mind the increase of knowledge is very slow. But little geometry can be taught to a child in a lesson, but if the instruction be continued through several years, and if it be adapted to the state of the child's mind, he will as surely arrive at a knowledge of geometry as by the natural process of growth he will reach manhood. The seeds of geometrical knowledge must be planted long before we can reap the ripe harvest.

The child's first knowledge is of necessity crude and imperfect. Time is required that impressions be verified, corrected, and, as it were, assimilated by the mind. When our perceptions of geometrical magnitudes have become

"A picture distinctly defined
In strong and imperishing colors of mind
A part of our being beyond our control",

we shall soon find ourselves able, almost intuitively, to perceive geometric truths, to verify our perceptions by analysis, and satisfy our minds by completing the work synthetically.

Our class called, we begin:

To whom does this play-ground belong? *To the district.* Who lives next us on the west? *Mr. Campbell.* What separates our play ground from Mr. Campbell's lot? *A fence.* Let us think about that for a moment: Suppose the fence is taken away, would that change the boundaries? Would we, or he, have any more or less land than now? *No.* Then it is not the fence that bounds our land, for, if the fence were taken away, there would still be a boundary. Up to a certain limit the land is ours, and beyond it is his. This limit we call a *line.* Is there any vacant land between ours and his that belongs to neither? *No.* How wide then is the line which divides our land from his? *It has no width.* Then we can not measure its width; can we measure it in any other direction? *Yes; we can measure its length.* What then has not the line? *The line has no breadth.* What has it? *It has length.* Has it color? Weight? Can you see it? Can you feel it? *No.* The line lacks every property but length.

What then is a line? *A line is that which has length without breadth or thickness.* Repeat in concert. Write this definition on your slates.

From our window we can see the crossing of two railroads, one of these is a six foot gauge, and the gauge of the other is five feet ten inches. Now, John, tell me how long and how wide the crossing is? *Six feet long and five feet ten inches broad.* Right. If I make a mark one-half inch wide and cross it with one one-fourth inch wide, how long and how wide would the crossing be?

Now, we can imagine two *lines* crossing, and, as you can see, the crossing will have neither width nor length. This is what we call a *point.* A point is a certain place, but it has neither length, breadth, nor thickness. If asked to tell what a point is, you would say, "*A point is that which has neither length, breadth, nor thickness, but place only.*" Repeat in concert. Write upon your slates.

How many dimensions has the line? How can we measure it? *We can measure its length.* How many dimensions has it then? *One.* How many dimensions has the point? *None.*

We are not to suppose that lines always lie between and divide different farms or lots. We can imagine the blackboard equally divided by a line from top to bottom, one-half the board lying on each side of the line. We can imagine lines drawn through the air from one steeple top to another. Or you can think of a line extending from your eye to some far distant star or from one star to another. Neither are we to think that there are no points save where two lines cross. A point may be any where. We can imagine a point in the air right in the center of this room, midway between the floor and ceiling. From this point we can imagine lines drawn to the floor walls and ceiling. We remember that a point has place only, and we can think of a point in any place.

What is this I have drawn on the blackboard! *A mark.* Is it a line? *No.* Why? *It has breadth, color, we can see it, etc.* No it is not a line, but it is used to show where a line is, just as the fence shows us where the line is between our grounds and Mr. Campbell's. As this mark is used to stand for a line, we find it convenient to call it a line. In the same way you call John's photograph, John. In the same way a farmer will tell you that a certain fence is the line between him and his neighbor, because the fence stands on the line, and he can see the fence and can not see the line.

We usually note the points we wish to consider by capital letters: this line is drawn from A to B. These letters form a name for the line; it is the line AB. We may use any other letters to designate the other lines—other lines which may be used in connection with this.

You may now draw and designate four lines. You distinguish the lines as AB, CD, EF, and GH. Very well; you can use any letters you choose. Excused.

Marion, O. W. W.

HEARING RECITATIONS.

BY RICHARD EDWARDS.*

What is a Recitation?—Strictly speaking, a recitation is a repetition of something previously uttered or written. This is indicated by the derivation of the word from the Latin *citare*, to call or name, and *re*, again. But in the sense in which the word is employed in school, it means more than this. A recitation, in the school sense, is an exercise in which there is not only a saying-over, or rehearsing, of lessons, but also explanation and instruction. The recitation hour is not only the time in which the teacher hears the pupil's repetition of what has been learned, but also the time in which he imparts such information as the pupil needs in order to think efficiently.

It seems, then, that recitation exercise has two main purposes. The first, which includes the hearing of what the pupil has to say, we may call *examination*, and the second, *instruction*. Examination should always precede instruction, because the latter ought to be imparted as the pupil needs it, and not otherwise. Every item of information given by the teacher, every suggestion offered should be given or offered because the pupil's mental state demands it; and it should be such as this mental state requires, and no other. Clearly, then, it is the teacher's first business to ascertain what this mental state of the pupil is, in order that he may know what instruction to impart.

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* President Normal University of Illinois.

In respect to What shall the Pupil be Examined?—First, he should be examined in respect to his knowledge of the lesson previously assigned for recitation. One of the most useful habits to foster in children is the habit of industry. Labor is a necessity of our nature. No person, however vast his wealth, is exempt from labor. Physical health, intellectual and moral culture, permanent happiness and peace of mind,—all these depend upon work. Without work they are unattainable. Children should therefore be accustomed to industry. When a lesson is assigned for study, its preparation should be conscientiously accomplished. Suppose a lesson to have been assigned and the class to be assembled for the purpose of reciting it; and that the teacher, impressed with the belief that he can present the subject more philosophically than it is presented in the book in which the lesson has been given, neglects to question the pupils upon what they had been required to learn, and devotes the time to explaining and elucidating the subject; how much labor will these pupils devote to preparing the next lesson given them to learn?

This careful examination of the assigned lesson is also necessary to promote the proper sense of responsibility. There must be something for which the pupil is held bound. He must feel that there are certain things which he *must do*. This will accustom him to obedience to duty. And this sense of responsibility, this amenableness to the law of right, is the state to which it is desirable to bring all human beings. Suppose all the children in a school, or all the people in a community, felt the force of this feeling of responsibility,—were constantly impressed with the conviction that certain things must be done, and certain other things abstained from,—how easy would be the governing of both school and community!

Secondly, the pupil must be examined in respect to his *understanding* of the subject presented in the lesson. He may have studied faithfully, and in such way as to deserve the teacher's unqualified approval, and yet fail fully to fathom the principles upon which he has been laboring. The teacher must be faithful in ascertaining, fully and accurately, his mental state in this respect. All the mental discipline the subject affords must be made available. Questions must be skillfully framed for detecting any error that may lurk in the pupil's mind. He must be made to understand the subject as well as the book.

But thirdly, the pupil's method of study and thinking must be looked into. Every truth is related to every other truth, and no truth is properly learned unless its relations are mastered at the same time; it follows from this that there is an order in which truths ought to be acquired. This order may not be the same for all minds, but *some* order is the right one for each mind. The teacher must ascertain whether this order has been observed by the pupil who comes into the class with an apparently thorough knowledge of the lesson. Suppose the recitation is upon the solution of a problem in arithmetic, and that the pupil has the correct result, and can state the process by which it may be found: the question must still be raised how he arrived at this result,—whether he began with the conditions of the question, and proceeded legitimately to the answer; or whether, observing the printed answer in the book, he experimented upon the given quantities to see what process would produce the given result, and then assumed that to be the right process.

Fourthly, the pupil's use of language must be carefully observed by the teacher. All wrong expressions,—grammatical blunders, slovenly statements, mispronunciations, etc.,—must be corrected on the spot, and the pupil required to use the proper expressions. But explanations of the principles of language should be given only at exercises devoted to that or kindred purposes. Otherwise, time will be unjustly consumed, which belongs to other topics. And, besides, explanation is not at all needed for the purpose in hand, which is to accustom the pupil to a proper use of speech. Language, as practically used, is a matter of habit, and not a matter of philosophy. Children learn to speak correctly and elegantly by speaking correctly and elegantly, and not by studying philology. The study of philology is very useful, but it is useful for explaining what is, and not for creating what is not,—namely, good habits of speech in a person addicted to bad ones.

Positions of Pupils and Modes of Reciting.—It is best that the pupil stand while reciting. The position makes him conspicuous, and gives importance to whatever he says. He therefore feels more strongly a sense of responsibility than if he were sitting. If he should give a false answer while sitting, the fact might not be recognized by all in the room, for all might not be sure of the individual reciting; but a mistake made by a pupil standing will not be likely to be imputed to any one else. This will, in most cases, nerve him to a better performance than if his identity were not so clear. The recitation should be prompt. In physics, momentum is dependent upon velocity as well as upon the quantity of matter. It is the same with mental movements. Rapidity, other things being equal, gives power to thought. No man exerts his greatest power of mind when thinking very slowly. Every word in the recitation should be distinctly spoken. Idle pupils often resort to indistinct mumbling, in order to cover up their ignorance and unfaithfulness. Let every statement be clear and unequivocal, so that the teacher may at once decide upon its truth or falsity. The pupil must not be allowed to use fragments of sentences. He should be accustomed to state his points in full sentences. He should not be allowed to depend upon the teacher for partly making, in the question, the statement which it is the pupil's business to make. How many pupils there are who can answer a question if it is so asked that only a word or two is required in answer, but who can do nothing if a full independent statement is required! Language is the counterpart of thought. It influences greatly the character of our thinking. The man of careless expression will soon become a man of careless thinking.

Instruction.—Under this head we only say here, that the amount of explanation given to a pupil on any subject must be carefully considered. It must not be too great in quantity. Nothing should be explained by the teacher which the pupil can master without explanation. The pupil is educated not by what is said to him, but by what is done by him. His mental strength is increased by being tried to its utmost. It is subject to precisely the same law as bodily strength. On the other hand, explanation must not be withheld when the principle to be mastered is clearly beyond the pupil's power. In such a case effort will only result in disappointment and discouragement.—*Kansas Ed. Journal.*

PROFANITY CURED.

The first school that I taught in the West, was in what was then the suburbs of Marietta. After teaching in that locality a few months, I was invited to take a school in the more thickly settled part of the town, which I engaged to do.

Soon after I had made the engagement, I learned that my predecessor was a very profane man, and that the boys of his school had contracted the habit of swearing to an alarming extent. I told my employers that I should feel it my duty to stop this practice of the boys in my school at once. I was told that I probably might be able to do it gradually, by using prudent measures, but that to do it at once, would be impossible. I replied that I had no idea of *tapering off* a sin of that character, and if it could not be done at once, I should consider that an indication that I was not in the right location, and should seek employment elsewhere. They still thought it impossible, and that it might result in breaking up the school. After having been in the school two or three days, I spoke to the boys on the subject at considerable length, pointing out, as well as I could, the folly and sin of the habit; that its tendency was to degrade those who practiced it; that it was ungentlemanly and mean, and showed a want of good manners, etc.; that I should endeavor to promote their best interest, and should allow nothing that would tend to impair their respectable standing in society—and much more of like import. I then stated to them that profanity would, in no case, be passed unnoticed; that for the first offense, I would reprove the offender before the school, but for the second, he should leave the school, and nothing should save him.

A few evenings after I had laid down this rule, quite a number of my boys had assembled on the court-house square, no buildings having been erected on it, nor any other obstruction save the *whipping-post*, which still remained. I had taken rooms right opposite, and was sitting at an open window seeing them at their play, and I enjoyed it. Suddenly the play ceased, and one boy was seized, tied to the whipping-post, and pretty severely whipped. I thought that a strange proceeding, and took occasion on the next day, just before dismissing the school at noon, to remonstrate against such unkind treatment of a fellow pupil; that it was right and proper that they should have their amusement, but I hoped I should never again witness the scene of the last evening; and then left the school-room. Two of the larger boys immediately followed me, and said they wished to explain the cause of the whipping: That as I had made it a rule that if any boy used profane language, he should be turned out of the school for the second offense; and as they had acquired the habit so much that they feared they should break the rule and be dismissed from school, which they wished to avoid, they had all signed a paper promising to swear no more; and if any one violated the rule, the other should whip him; that one boy did so and was whipped accordingly; that the boy did not complain of ill treatment, and they hoped I would be satisfied by the explanation. I told them that I would not interfere with their discipline, but hoped they would have no further occasion to resort to it. Nor to my knowledge had they; nor did I from that time hear of a profane word by any of my scholars.

I am satisfied that in cases like the above, it is proper and best even that the teacher should take a decided stand.

Rochester, N. Y. WM. SLOCOMB.

PRAISE.

While visiting at a friend's house, a few months since, the conversation turned upon school matters. My friend's little daughter soon interrupted us by saying that she did not "like her teacher"; that she did not "like to attend school"; and that the other pupils "did not either."

I proceeded to question her, and received this reply which I give in her own words: "He never praises us. When we do wrong, he is sure to reprove us; when we have perfect lessons and try to please him, he does not appear to be pleased at all."

I was on friendly terms with the teacher, and determined to visit his school. I did so the next day, and found things as the little girl had said. The pupils were listless and idle; the recitations slow and dragging; and the teacher weary and discouraged. After school hours I gave him a few hints on the efficacy of praise. He promised to try it.

Sometime after I again visited the school. There was a complete change. The pupils were animated and studious, the recitations, full of life, and the teacher cheerful. The revolutionizer had been praise judiciously employed.

Children live in the present. They have but a dim conception of the future, and they require some immediate reward for their labor. No reward is more acceptable to them than the approbation of their teacher, and this may be conveyed by a word, a look, or a smile. Merited praise, intelligently bestowed, has the same effect on a school that a shower of rain has on plants. It revives, strengthens, cheers. JAMES SIMPSON.

SUPERINTENDENTS' ASSOCIATION.

During the late session of the Ohio Teachers' Association at Dayton, a meeting of Superintendents was held at the Phillips House for the purpose of organizing a Superintendents' Association. A temporary organization was effected by electing M. F. Cowdery, of Sandusky, Chairman, and Mr. Johnson of Hamilton county, Secretary.

On motion, Messrs. John Hancock, W. D. Henkle, and W. E. Crosby were elected a Committee to report rules for the permanent organization of an Association, and to prepare business for a meeting to be held during the winter holidays.

At a subsequent meeting of the Committee the following topics were agreed upon for report and discussion at that meeting, which it was agreed should convene in the State Commissioner's office in the city of Columbus, on Tuesday, December 29, 1868:

1. Methods and frequency of examinations for transfer of pupils in graded schools.
2. On a general truancy law.
3. Practical methods of giving moral instruction.
4. On the methods of selecting teachers for graded schools.

The Committee earnestly solicits every Superintendent of the State to come up to the meeting, and take part in its deliberations. This invitation is intended to include every head of a graded school, whether he be called Superintendent, Master, or Principal.

It is believed this new oraganization, if it be properly sustained, will be one of great practical advantage to the educational interests of the State. JOHN HANCOCK,

Chairman of the Committee.

"TWO WHEELS."

ED. MONTHLY: In the July number of the MONTHLY, T. McCammon Dill answers correctly the problem proposed by W.D.H. in the particular case given, and I propose the following as a general solution: To ascertain the number of rotations made by rolling a wheel over *any* surface—plane, curved, or mixed—*divide the distance passed through by the center of the rolling wheel, by its circumference.* This rule gives two rotations in the case proposed, and readily disposes of all cases, whether the wheel roll on the convex or concave surface. Yours, T. C. MENDENHALL.

School Officers' Department.

THE board of education of Sycamore township, Hamilton county, O., has adopted a rule making twenty-one days a school month, the last day (the 21st) to be devoted to a teachers' institute or meeting. Teachers who do not attend the institute, forfeit one day's wages.

SCHOOL directors should encourage their teachers to attend the county institute. No teacher can attend a good institute, and not be able to teach a better school. It imparts to its members a new impulse, higher aims, and truer ideas. When the institute occurs in term time, the schools should be closed to afford the teachers an opportunity to attend. The time lost in closing the schools will be more than made good by increased efficiency and thoroughness.

SUPERINTENDENT Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, officially announces that the *School Journal* will be sent, at the expense of the State, to each board of school directors and to each county, borough, and city superintendent. He adds: "The character of the matter with which the *Journal* will be filled, official and otherwise, will be such that neither teachers nor directors can afford to do without it. Directors now have the legal right to subscribe for copies out of the funds of the districts, the only compensation, indeed, they can receive for their services; and it would not be amiss for them so to contract with their teachers as to require them to keep up with the times by reading a periodical which has fought so long and so well in the cause of common school education."

ACTING MANAGER OF SCHOOLS.

DEAR SIR: I have been appointed Acting Manager of the schools of this township, and I need all the light I can possibly get in order to discharge the duties of the office in an acceptable and efficient manner. * * * Will you be so kind as to prepare an article on the subject for an early number of the MONTHLY?

Very respectfully, G. A. B——.

Section 13 of the school law provides that boards of education "may appoint one of their number the acting manager of schools for the township, who shall do and perform all such duties as the board may prescribe in relation to the management and supervision of the different schools, and the educational interests of the township." The evident and praiseworthy design of this provision is to give the country schools the benefit of supervision, but two difficulties have rendered the law practically inoperative. The first of these is the requirement that the acting manager shall be a member of the township board. Few school boards are so fortunate as to contain a member competent to undertake the task of school direction.

But the most serious difficulty is the fact that the entire management and control of the township schools are not by law entrusted to the board of education. Section 6 makes it "the duty of the school directors in each sub-district to take the management and control of its local interests and affairs", to employ and dismiss teachers, to visit the schools, etc.—this duty to be discharged under and in obedience to such rules and regulations as the township board may prescribe. But the board can not by rule or regulation take this local management and control out of the hands of the directors, and, hence, they can not delegate to the acting manager the authority essential to the highest success. Even if it be true that the board may prescribe as a rule that the control of the local directors shall be subject to the direction of the acting manager, this mixed control is likely to lead to discord and difficulty. What is needed to make the local supervision of our township schools practicable, is the abolition of the sub-district boards, and the placing of the entire control of the schools in the hands of a township board. This will make the duties of the acting manager plain and important, and the office will become an agency of great value in the improvement of our schools.

The best that can be done under the present system is to make the acting manager an inspector of schools and an adviser or counselor of directors and teachers; and this view lets in all the light we are able to throw on the subject. The first step is to secure the coöperation of the directors of the several sub-districts, and the next is to make a careful examination of the schools with a view of ascertaining their condition and needs. In this work the manager should assume no authority, and he should carefully avoid any public criticism either of the teacher or the school. A thorough examination of the several classes will usually open the teacher's eyes, and the manager will be asked for suggestions. These should be given privately, and with a view of securing improvement. They may relate to the subjects of seating, classification, programme, recesses, recitations, methods of teaching and governing, advancement of pupils, use of text-books, care of room, method of keeping records, etc. An hour's interview with a teacher, *after* a careful inspection of his school, will enable a competent manager or superintendent to effect a considerable improvement.

The manager should also seek an interview with the directors. Their desire to know what he thinks of the school, will afford an opportunity to speak of its wants, the repairs needed, etc. These suggestions should be made discreetly, and not in a fault-finding or officious spirit. The directors should be invited to visit the school with the manager, and to participate in the examination of the classes. A public meeting of the inhabitants of the district to be addressed by the manager and other friends of education, will awaken a new interest in the school, and widen the influence of the manager's visit.

With the coöperation of the local directors, different classes in the several schools may be brought together, and their attainments and progress compared. Examinations, conducted in this manner, may be made very suggestive and effective. It will usually be found best to devote an entire session to a single branch, as reading or spelling.

Township teachers' meetings may also be organized by the manager, and, if properly conducted, they may be made a very efficient means of improvement. A few minutes at each session may be profitably spent in the reading and discussion of a practical article on teaching, selected from some educational treatise or periodical.

Other suggestions might be added, but we fear that our light is darkness.

SCHOOL APPARATUS.

The *Pennsylvania School Journal* for July contains an editorial article in which a supply of proper apparatus is urged as one of the pressing needs of the schools. Among the articles necessary to right instruction in an ordinary school, the editor mentions the following: 1. A large Bible, a quarto dictionary, and an universal gazetteer. 2. A good clock, large enough to show the hour from every part of the room, and a hand-bell. 3. A school register of some approved form. 4. A supply of good blackboard, sufficient to accommodate at least twenty pupils at a time. 5. Maps, both in detail and outline, and a set of globes. 6. A large elocutionary or phonetic chart, with a set of alphabet and spelling cards. 7. Writing and drawing charts. 8. A complete set of all the text-books used in the school. 9. A cabinet or case for specimens of minerals and articles used in object-teaching. 10. A neat book-case for the school library. These articles, it is urged, should be furnished by the school board.

HOW TO HANG MAPS.

Maps are soon ruined by careless modes of hanging them. The brass rings found upon them will very soon tear out, and the map will become loosened from the roller. The following has been found a very good way to hang maps: At a small distance from each end of the upper roller fix a small wire staple, such as are used in hanging picture frames. Connect these two staples by a very strong cord, and by this suspend the map. When maps are to hang permanently, the following way will be found very convenient: Fix a small pulley in the ceiling, and over this pass a strong cord. To each end of this cord attach a map in such a way that when one is down low enough to be easily examined, the other is above, out of the way. When maps are to be taken from one place to another, each room should be provided with a stand, consisting of a simple standard, supported on a firm base.—*Michigan Teacher.*

Editorial Department.

WE intended to fill this number with the proceedings of the State Association, but, after waiting for the minutes until the 20th inst., and fearing still further delay, we concluded to postpone their publication until September. We do not blame the secretary, for we know by experience that it is no easy task to collect reports and addresses for publication. The disappointment has, however, obliged us to make hasty provision for this number, but we trust that the practical value of the selected articles will fully compensate for any lack of original contributions.

THE MONTHLY.

We are not quite certain that our friends know what it costs to publish an educational journal, which they are pleased to pronounce one of the best in the country. There seems to be an impression that so long as our circulation is increasing, the financial result must be satisfactory. The fact is, that the increase in our circulation is not yet sufficient to make good our increased expenses. Our average circulation last year was greater than that of any previous year, and yet our net profits were several hundred dollars less than in 1865 or 1866. The same is true of the first half of the current year as compared with the first half of previous years.

The explanation is simple. The MONTHLY formerly contained but *thirty-two* pages, not counting the advertising form. We enlarged it last year to *forty* pages, and, at the same time, reduced the size of the type. *The cost of these extra eight pages is the difficulty.* We can afford to print thirty-two pages, and fill them with the very best materials that can be obtained; we can *not* afford to print forty pages unless our circulation is proportionately increased. Now what shall be done? Shall we go permanently back to thirty-two pages, or will the teachers of the State take hold and give us five hundred more subscribers? This number can easily be obtained in the institutes alone, if the matter is only properly presented. Let every one who wishes to see the MONTHLY maintain its present character, lend a helping hand. We are ready to do our part, and, if sustained, we shall strive to make the journal still more potent and valuable.

THE DAYTON MEETING.

The recent meeting of the Association was not so largely attended as the previous one at Springfield, but the crowd was large enough for comfort, and all classes of schools were well represented. The number of teachers present was about 500. The Association was cordially welcomed by the citizens of

Dayton, and the lady teachers were very hospitably entertained. The spacious Opera Hall was opened for the sessions, and all needed facilities were generously provided.

The one drawback was the intense heat, and this was a most serious one. Most of the members seemed incapable of listening to any thing, and, as a consequence, the ablest addresses and discussions failed to receive even respectable attention. We are safe in saying that not one-half of the members, on an average, were in the hall. The social element alone was heat proof. The greetings were hearty and enthusiastic. We never before went through an equal amount of hand-shaking in the same length of time.

We may anticipate the judgment of our readers by remarking that the addresses and reports were generally able and instructive. President Henkle's inaugural was the key note to the first day's discussion, the topic considered being the true course of study. The discussion was introduced by Mr. Converse's paper on "Courses of Study for High Schools," and was continued by Prof. Young's paper on "The Relation of Public Schools to Colleges." For a time the discussion was narrowed to a conflict between the advocates and opponents of classical training, but it soon took a wider range. All agreed that there should be greater harmony between the high school course and the college course, that the former should be preparatory to the latter. The chief difficulty was admitted to be in the neglect of Greek in the high schools. We think Mr. Henkle hit the nail squarely on the head when he stated that the colleges have got to come to the public schools on this question, and not the public schools to the colleges. Most of our high schools can not and will not prepare boys for college in Greek, and the question for the colleges to decide is whether they will admit high school graduates without Greek. If they will not, they must get along without high school students.

The discussion of the second day was devoted to the subject of Teachers' Institutes. It was introduced by School Commissioner Norris, who clearly presented the importance of the institute work and its present needs. He fearlessly stated that the institutes in some of the counties are conducted by incompetent men, whose chief object is to transfer the institute funds from the county treasury to their own pockets. What is needed is a corps of competent institute instructors to go into the backward counties, and organize and conduct efficient institutes. He asked the State Association to put two or more instructors into the field, and to become responsible for their salaries. This proposition was discussed at some length, most of the speakers favoring the enterprise. It was urged by one or two that this work should be undertaken by the State, and that the true course was to ask for the necessary appropriation. Prof. Tappan moved that the subject be referred to the Executive Committee with authority to take such action as they may deem best, but without running the Association in debt. The Committee had a conference at the noon recess, and agreed to ascertain whether the necessary funds could be raised in the Association by voluntary subscriptions. From $500 to $600 were raised at the afternoon session, Mr. Turner, one of the proprietors of the Opera House, giving $60.

We have to repeat our standing complaint against the Association, viz: its indisposition to discuss professional topics of practical interest to the great body of teachers present. The only effort in this direction was Mr. Reinmund's excellent paper on "Practical Language Lessons", which came near the close of the session, and which was passed by without any discussion.

We are happy to add that the spirit of the Association was capital. It was earnest, harmonious, progressive.

SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

In every school study and good conduct are secured by the use of incentives, good or bad. Every act, every purpose springs from some motive, the character of which determines the influence of the act or purpose on the pupil's moral life. If the pupil's motives be low and selfish, his moral nature will thereby be debased, and this is true whatever may be the appearance of his external conduct.

This view discloses the paramount importance of right incentives in school instruction and government—an importance not fully recognized, and a subject very imperfectly understood. It is not enough that the teacher manages to secure diligence in study and good order. The vital inquiry is, What *motives* does he appeal to in gaining these ends? If these are wrong, the result, however fair in external appearance, will prove to be like the apples of Sodom. There is, in brief, an inseparable connection between school instruction or government and moral training. Every exercise of the school-room enters into the moral character of the pupil.

Nor is the difficulty solved when the teacher has determined correctly what incentives are intrinsically right and what are intrinsically wrong. Right incentives differ in degree, so to speak, and the lower are always improperly used when the higher would be equally effective. Lower incentives may be necessary and proper in controlling a school of savages, but as fast as the savage nature is overcome, the higher should be appealed to. The true doctrine is, that the use of lower incentives should be temporary, and they should be made preparatory to those which are higher and nobler. Of two motives equally potent, the higher should always be placed before the pupil.

These statements show why it is that some teachers fail to develop a manly and noble character in their pupils. They treat them as ninnies or savages, incapable of noble impulses, and callous to all appeals of conscience and right. The path of duty is hedged in with artificial rewards, and the way of disobedience is made to bristle with artificial punishments. Between the pupil and every duty is thrust some false incentive, as a credit-mark, a ticket, a holiday, or a prize, and this becomes the immediate end of study or aim of conduct. That such a system should fail to quicken the conscience or nourish a high sense of duty, is not strange. The pupil's moral nature is fed on husks.

We have said thus much "to break ground" in a new field of inquiry—a field sadly needing cultivation. For seven years we have passed around it, feeling that we were not competent to enter. We have hoped to see others go in before us, but we have waited in vain. Scarcely a line has been written for our pages touching this subject, and yet, if we mistake not, there is no educational topic more fundamental and vital. We shrink from the task before us, but we intend to make as thorough work as time and ability will permit.

MISCELLANY.

Subscriptions hereafter received will begin with the July number, unless the publisher is otherwise instructed. We can still supply back numbers from January—the first number of the current volume.

The National Associations.—Gen. Eaton, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Tennessee, is making ample preparations for the accommodations of the National Associations which meet at Nashville the third week of August. He requests us to remind our Northern readers that the days are shorter in summer in Tennessee than in Ohio, and hence, those who wish to attend, need not fear excessive heat. The State authorities and the leading educators of Tennessee will give the Associations a cordial welcome. We hope Ohio may be well represented. Arrangeemnts will be made to visit Mammoth Cave on the return trip. The railroads from Nashville will return delegates free.

Educational Papers.—The present year has called into existence several new educational papers, printed in quarto form. The neatest of these is "*The Schoolmaster*," published at Normal, Ill., and containing sixteen pages. It is edited by Prof. A, Stetson of the Normal University, and is largely devoted to the interests of that institution.——"*The School Casket*" is the title of a monthly periodical, sixteen pages, edited and published by J. A. Snodgrass and J. M. Nesbitt, Pittsburgh, Pa. It has reached its ninth number.——"*The Teachers' Advocate*" is published at Ebensburg, Pa., George W. Cope, Editor. It contains eight pages.——"*The Southern Journal of Education*" contains sixteen pages, and is published at Shelbyville, Ky., by John T. Hearn.

The Nursery as a Primary Reader.—In a recent number we made brief mention of the fact that we were conducting an experiment with a view to test the value of a frequent change in reading matter for children. The difficulty to be overcome was a lack of all interest in the reading lessons, occasioned by the fequent repetition of them by successive classes. The reading was therefore lifeless and unnatural. The experiment alluded to was tried in the B class in the first primary department; the average age of the pupils being seven years. The parents of these children were advised to buy the *Nursery* as a reading book. The matter was entirely voluntary, and it was expected that but few would feel willing to try the experiment. Thirty-three copies were first ordered, but the number has constantly increased till now there are fifty-six. The result so far has more than met the expectations formed of the plan. The change in reading matter each month acts as a perpetual stimulus, and the desire to read all the articles in each number occasions a rapid improvement. The success of this experiment is no doubt partially due to the admirable selection of matter in the *Nursery*..—*Michigan Teacher*.

Presentation.—Mr. D. D. Pickett, late superintendent of the Union School, was recently presented with a handsome and valuable gold watch chain. The gift came from a few personal friends who sought in this way to express their regard for one who has been so valuable and useful a member of the community. Mr. Pickett fully reciprocated the good will indicated by the delicate gift, and will consider it a golden bond uniting the associations and pleasant memories connected with his work here.—*Ravenna Democrat.*

NORWALK.—The graduating class of the high school interrupted the exercises, at the close of the year, to present their excellent superintendent, Mr. Stevenson, with Smith's Dictionary of the Bible, a splendid work in three large volumes. The *Reflector* says that it was a tribute richly deserved, and worthy of the class by whom it was presented.

UPPER SANDUSKY.—A pupil of our school was punished with a willow switch by one of the teachers for willful disobedience. The boy went home and presented his grievances to his parents. The father, following bad advice, resolved to take the case into court. The trial came off before Justice Myers, in the Court House, in the presence of quite a number of the pupils of our schools, who seemed to manifest lively interest in the result. There was also a large number of ladies and gentlemen present. After a full hearing, the Justice discharged the defendant. This decision is received by our people with almost unanimous approbation.—*Pioneer.*

MANSFIELD.—The citizens of this city recently voted down a proposition to erect a new high school building. The board had authority to raise $30,000, and they asked for $30,000 more, to make the building large enough to accommodate the high school and a few primary and secondary schools. We do not know why the vote was adverse, but we think we should rather have a $30,000 building for the exclusive use of the high school than the building proposed. The true policy in cities is to separate the higher and lower departments. Mansfield is sadly in need of school-houses, but it has excellent schools under most efficient management.——Miss Fanny Wait and Miss Leggett resigned their positions in the high school at the close of the year. The former was presented with an elegant set of Shakespeare's Works and the latter with Longfellow's Poems. The *Herald* pays Miss Wait a very high but well-deserved compliment.

XENIA.—For several years past Supt. Ormsby has devoted his thoughts and energies to the one work of building up these schools, and making them worthy of the city. The result demonstrates the value of continuous, intelligent supervision. Every department is in excellent condition, and the system as a whole is uniformly efficient and thorough. The high school is one of the best in the State. Of the 70 pupils enrolled the last year, 48 were studying Latin and 11 Greek. Seven boys are preparing for college. Quite a number of the pupils are from the country, drawn in by the high reputation of the school. Mr. Ormsby does not believe in frequent changes in school management, and so he declines tempting offers to go elsewhere, and steadily pursues the work before him.

INSTITUTES.—The Gallia County Institute will be held at Gallipolis the second week of August—Prof. Young, Capt. Mitchell, and Mr. Caldwell, instructors.——An institute will be held at McConnelsville the third week of August—Profs. Young, Kidd, and Mr. Stevenson, instructors.——J. C. Kinney conducts a teachers' institute at Morrow, during the four weeks beginning July 13th.

ATHENS COUNTY.—A two weeks' institute was held at Athens beginning July 6th —about sixty teachers in attendance. Prof. Young gave instruction in theory and practice and English language; Prof. Schuyler in arithmetic; Prof. Kidd in elocution; Prof. Tappan in geography, and Prof. Scott in penmanship. The session was highly interesting and profitable.

FAIRFIELD COUNTY.—The normal institute held at Pleasantville, was not well attended, and was closed the second week. The county institute held at Lancaster the week beginning July 27, was attended by about 70 different teachers, who were deeply interested in the exercises. The instructors were Supt. J. F. Reinmund and E. E. White, of Columbus. Mr. Reinmund gave an excellent course of lectures on "Practical Instruction in Language," and arithmetic. Mr. White gave a course of lectures, embracing primary instruction, theory and practice, school government, reading, spelling, and geography. He also gave two evening addresses. Several important questions, including teachers acting as book agents, township institutes, and county supervision, were discussed by the members. A resolution was passed requesting the examiners to raise the standard of qualifications, and to grant but one six months' certificate to any applicant. Prof. R. F. Humiston, of Cleveland, was present the last day of the session, and gave two valuable lectures, and Supt. Hartzler, of Galion, also favored the institute with many practical suggestions.

MONTGOMERY COUNTY.—The thirteenth annual institute was held at Dayton, beginning July 6th, and continuing two weeks. The instructors were T. W. Harvey, Wm. Smith, and J. C. Ridge. The secretary, Mr. A. L. Lessner, reports that the session was extremely pleasant both intellectually and socially, notwithstanding the high range of the thermometer. The instruction was devoted mainly to methods of teaching. About fifty teachers were present.

MARIETTA COLLEGE.—The Freshman Class of the next collegiate year will be the largest in the history of the college, and the prospects of the institution in other respects have never been brighter. Two new professors have recently been elected—Rev. Addison Ballard, D.D., of Detroit, and Rev. D. E. Beach, of Granville, O. Both are eminent for scholarship, and are most genial and excellent men.

OHIO FEMALE COLLEGE.—The building lately destroyed by fire is to be replaced by a handsome edifice with modern improvements. The work is rapidly progressing, and the contract stipulates that it shall be completed in 105 days.

MR. JOHN BALDWIN, the founder of Baldwin University, Berea, O., has founded, at his own expense, an educational institution called Thompson's University, on the Teche river, about one hundred miles from New Orleans. The site is one of the finest on the continent. Instruction is to be given without respect to sex or color. He is preparing to erect immediately a large college chapel in addition to the present buildings, the whole to be devoted forever to the cause of education and religion.

CHANGES.—I. P. Hole has resigned the superintendency of the Akron schools, and S. Findley, for several years principal of the Brownell Street School, Cleveland, has been elected his successor at a salary of $2,500.——D. D. Picket has resigned the superintendency of the Ravenna schools.——Rev. J. F. Reinmund, for several years past superintendent of the schools of Lancaster, has accepted the superintendency of the schools of Springfield.——W. H. Pabodie, formerly principal of one of the district schools of Cincinnati, has been elected superintendent of the schools of Lebanon.——J. M. Miller, late principal of the Camp Washington schools, takes charge of the public schools of Lockland.——Mrs. M. Cuscaden, formerly assistant teacher in the high school, has been appointed superintendent of the schools of Marion.——W. A. C. Converse has resigned the principalship of the Cleveland Central High School, and Andrew Freese, formerly Superintendent, has been elected his successor.

OTHER STATES.

Maryland.—The *Educational Journal* which was started under favorable auspices, suspended at the close of the first volume (in April). This result is, doubtless, due to the unhappy divisions in school affairs in the State. The publisher, even at pecuniary loss, carried the enterprise through the year, and honorably fulfilled all his engagements to his subscribers.——The new school system has gone into operation, and it is hoped that it may prove popular. The normal school is continued.

West Virginia.—The State Normal School at Guyandotte was opened on the 15th of June, with Prof. S. R. Thompson, of the Pennsylvania State Normal School at Edinboro, as principal. The institution has an academical department and a normal department. The State Superintendent has issued a circular, stating the number of normal students allotted to the several counties.

Illinois.—The new schedule of salaries in Chicago gives the Superintendent $4,000; High School Principal, $2,500; Normal School Principal, $2,200; and District Principal's, with three years' experience, $2,000 each. Lady teachers in lower schools receive from $450 to $700. The estimated school expenditures for the coming year are $795,500, the salaries of teachers amounting to $340,000.——The salary of Richard Edwards, President of the State Normal University, has been raised to $4,000.——The teachers in the southern part of the State have organized a "Southern Educational Convention," the first meeting to be held at Centralia in September next.

Prof. A. S. Welch, formerly Principal of the Michigan State Normal School, has been chosen United States Senator from Florida, and also President of the Iowa Agricultural College.

C. C. **Rounds**, formerly principal of one of the Cleveland Grammar Schools, has been elected principal of the State Normal School at Farmington, Maine.

BOOK NOTICES.

Universal Records. Published by Hamilton S. McRae, Muncie, Ind.

We have received "Pupil's Universal Record", Nos. 1 and 2, and "Teacher's Universal Record", and have examined them with much interest and satisfaction. The first book named is designed to be used by the pupil in keeping his own record—an excellent practice which we used successfully years since. The teacher's record requires the re-entry of the pupils' names each month, but is otherwise very conveniently arranged. It is made of good paper, and is well ruled. It is a good register. We have also specimen sheets of his "Superintendent's Record" and "Professor's Record". They are both well arranged.

Elementary Algebra. By Prof. **Smyth**, of Bowdoin College, Portland, Me.

I have at last found in this country an algebra after my own heart,—one that begins rationally with equations! Thus, at the very outset, the learner, fresh from arithmetic, can form an idea of the nature and power of this new instrument of calculation without being compelled first to plod through the dry and (to him) aimless manipulations which, in our common text-books, precede the application of algebra to real and intelligible questions. The author handles the metaphysics or philosophy of the science so logically and so clearly, that, but for the English words that met my eye, I could have fancied myself reading one of our own French elementary works. One serious objection only I have to make. The answers are, as usual, forced upon the eye of the learner, instead of being, as they should be, at the end of the book.

Among several interesting subjects, usually omitted in elementary algebras, (as, for instance, Indeterminate Analysis,) the author has given us a chapter on permutations and combinations. But how easily he might have made his work more complete by adding the application of that beautiful law to the demonstration of the Binomial Theorem, when the index of the power is positive and integral.

This beautiful work, or others like it, will I hope supersede, in time, the old-fashioned books.

I am now devouring his Elementary Calculus, a work about the size of Ray's First Algebra (think of that!) and yet complete in all its parts! It is as clear as Loomis, and, being less bulky, it is better adapted to our high schools. It is superior to it in this respect, that, instead of the usual severance of the differential and integral branches of the subject, it carries them on simultaneously, which is far more natural, since the one is only the converse of the other. As in the algebra, I am annoyed by having the answers, whether I will or not, thrust under my nose. T. E. S.

ATLAS OF OHIO: Prepared from Actual Surveys, and containing General Maps of the United States. By H. F. WALLING, Professor of Civil Engineering, Washington College, Pa. Published by Henry S. Stebbins, New York.

This work is the most complete and valuable work of the kind we have ever examined. It presents elaborate and standard maps of Ohio in detail, the counties being arranged in groups of four or more, and the townships being exhibited with great minuteness of detail, showing the public roads, railroads, streams, canals, location of post villages, sectional lines, etc. These maps are accompanied with some twenty large quarto pages of descriptive matter, embracing the topography, history, climate, geology, agriculture, educational system, canals and railways. These articles are prepared by men eminent in their respective departments, the one on geology being prepared by Dr. J. S. Newberry, of Cleveland; that on climatology by Lorin Blodget, of Philadelphia; that on education by Thos. W. Harvey, etc. It is, in a sentence, a great work devoted to a great State.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Published Quarterly. Hartford: D. N. Camp. $4.00 a year.

The last number of this massive Educational Quarterly contains 176 pages, 119 of which are devoted to Public Instruction in Prussia, Oldenburg, and Switzerland. Valuable articles on The German Universty, Egerton Ryerson, D.D., LL.D. (biographical), and Schools as they were Sixty Years Ago, fill the remaining pages. The number is embellished with a fine steel portrait of Rev. Dr. Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, since 1844. The *Journal* contains much information which would not otherwise be accessible to American educators.

MEN OF OUR DAY. By Dr. L. P. BROCKETT. Published by Zeigler, McCurdy & Co., Cincinnati, O.

This work contains brief and interesting biographical sketches of some fifty of the more prominent Statesmen, Generals, Financiers, and Philanthropists of the country, accompanied with small steel portraits. The author is the popular biographical editor of Appleton's Cyclopedia, and the sketches show a wise selection of materials, and are commendably free from highly-colored eulogy or unjust criticism. This work is sold exclusively by subscription.

A COURSE OF SYSTEMATIC AND PROGRESSIVE DRAWING. Prepared for American Common Schools. In Six Parts. By ROBERT DEMCKER. Cincinnati: Ehrgott, Forbriger & Co. 1868.

The author has been long and favorably known as a practical teacher, and his works carry on their face the evidence that they can be successfully used in the school-room. The lessons begin with the simplest elements, and gradually develop the more complex forms; and this is done, not by a mechanical imitation of copies, but by the more natural use of real objects. The system is a skillful application of the principles of object teaching to Drawing, one of the most useful and important of the elementary branches; and we hope that it may be instrumental in giving the subject its proper place in school instruction. The illustrations are numerous and elegant, and the books are otherwise a credit to the publishers.

IN THE SCHOOL-ROOM. Chapters in the Philosophy of Education. By JOHN S. HART, LL.D., Principal of the New Jersey State Normal School. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.

This work is a collection of practical essays on education, each complete in itself, and yet so connected with the others as to present a somewhat systematic treatment of the subject. The author's views are based on a long, varied, and successful experience as a teacher, and they are expressed in a clear, concise, and interesting manner. The article in our May number on "Teachers of One Idea" and the one in this number on "Knowledge before Memory", may be taken as fair representatives, and we are sure that the readers of these articles will be glad to peruse the remaining chapters. The book is neatly published.

SPENCERIAN STEEL PENS.—We have received a complete set of these celebrated pens (fourteen different kinds), and take pleasure in commending them to our readers. In elasticity and smoothness of action, they are nearly equal to a good quill pen, and this we know, not from a mere trial, but from actual use. If the other varieties are as good as those we use, they "fill the bill."

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

EATON'S ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA. By William F. Bradbury. Boston: Taggard & Thompson. 1868.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. By John J. Anderson, M.A. New York: Clark & Maynard. 1868.

ELEMENTS OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. By W. J. Rolfe and J. A. Gillet. Boston: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co. 1868.

HANDBOOK OF THE STARS. By Rolfe and Gillet. Boston: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co. 1868.

THE MODEL DEFINER. By A. C. Webb. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro. 1868.

THE MODEL ETYMOLOGY. Fourth Edition. By A. C. Webb. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro.

ELEMENTARY CHEMISTRY. By Henry E. Roscoe, B.A., F.R.S. New York: Wm. Wood & Co. 1868.

ANALYTICAL AND PRACTICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR. By Rev. Peter Bullions, D.D. New York: Sheldon & Company. 1867.

THE COMPLETE ARITHMETIC. By John F. Stoddard, A.M. New York: Sheldon & Company. 1868.

THE ANALYTICAL SERIES OF READERS. By Richard Edwards, LL.D., and J. Russell Webb. New York: Mason & Brothers.

TEACHER'S GUIDE TO PALESTINE. By Henry S. Osborn. Philadelphia: J. C. Garrigues & Co. 1868.

THE

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OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE TWENTIETH ANNUAL SESSION.

The twentieth annual meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association was held in Dayton, commencing Tuesday evening, June 30, 1868.

The President, Mr. W. D. Henkle (Salem), called the Association to order, after which the Rev. Mr. Gotswold offered an introductory prayer.

The following nominations were moved by Capt. Mitchell (Columbus), seconded by Mr. Marvin (Cincinnati), and approved by the Association:

Mr. W. Jones, Recording Secretary; Mr. J. F. Reinmund, Assistant Recording Secretary; Mr. S. Findley, Railway Secretary; and Mr. T. C. Mendenhall, Treasurer.

Mr. W. S. Smith (Dayton), on behalf of the citizens of Dayton, welcomed the teachers of Ohio, which was acknowledged in a brief reply by the President.

The President then delivered his Inaugural Address, after which the meeting adjourned till 9 A.M. the following day.

Wednesday, July 1—Morning Session.

After an introductory prayer by Pres. Merrick (O. W. University) the President stated the qualifications of membership of the

Association, and enumerated the railroad companies by which return tickets would be granted members.

Mr. W. A. C. Converse (Cleveland) read a paper on "Courses of Study for High Schools." An animated and interesting discussion on this paper followed.

Mr. Hancock (Cincinnati) commenced by referring to the great importance of the subject. He thought that we are entering on an age of progress as regards the momentous question of *what shall we teach.* Much depends on a correct solution of this question. It is beyond the ability of any individual to solve it. The coöperation of all is necessary. He did not advocate the mathematics as opposed to the classics, but maintained that the course should be eclectic. We only delude ourselves when we fancy that we can teach every thing. He had greater faith in a literary course than in any other. The mathematical course of Cambridge, as well as the classical course of Oxford, had failed. The later course adopted in Oxford, should be introduced into this country. Our high schools do not infuse into the mind a love for learning. They simply grind the ax, without producing that breadth of culture which enables men to solve great problems. To the attainment of that culture, the natural sciences and literature were, in his opinion, best adapted. He concurred with Dr. Carpenter in believing that a boy of eleven or twelve years of age can be taught to understand the general principles of natural philosophy. It is a lamentable thing to see persons tolerably well versed in the classics, but wholly ignorant of German or French. Modern literature would afford the same degree of mental discipline that the classics do, and have the advantage of utility.

Pres. Howard (Ohio University) regretted that a misunderstanding existed between those engaged in colleges and those engaged in high schools. Both parties labor in the same cause, and aim to accomplish the same task. He was sorry to state that young men frequently presented themselves for admission into colleges who were by no means prepared. A state of education should embrace colleges as well as common schools. They were in some sense dependent on and connected with each other. Colleges relied on high schools for pupils, and common schools depended on colleges for teachers. He was prepared to defend the study of the classics on the score of saving time. The assistance that a knowledge of Latin and Greek afforded in mastering modern languages and some of the sciences, more than repaid the time and labor expended on them.

[On motion, each speaker was limited to ten minutes.]

Pres. Hartshorn (Mount Union College) perceived that a want of harmony existed between the curriculum of the high school and that of the college. He thought that the studies in college should be elective, and believed that such was the opinion of a majority of educators. A tolerably thorough knowledge of English, French, and German literature was, in his opinion, equal to an acquaintance with the classics.

Mr. Watkins (Marion) wanted to hear the question argued from the common school stand-point. The difference which existed between the high school and the collegiate courses gave teachers of high schools considerable difficulty. The great drawback in connection with courses of studies, was a failure to adapt the studies to the different stages of mental development. The existence of such stages is too frequently ignored by those who frame courses of study.

Capt. Mitchell (Columbus) thought that teachers of high schools should bear in mind that the parents of their pupils were divisible into three classes: (1) The wealthy man, who has decided on a profession for his son, and who wants the course of study to be such as will directly qualify him for that profession. (2) The intelligent mechanic who has no definite profession in view, but who wishes his son to acquire such practical knowledge as will qualify him for anything that "might turn up." (3) The middle class man, who, although wishing his son to receive a practical education, yet deems a knowledge of Latin as essential as that of English. The high-school course should be framed to accommodate these three classes. This would be the means of increasing the attendance, inasmuch as many are now deterred from entering high schools because they must take certain studies which they deem useless, or at least unnecessary. It would be advisable to divide the four years' course into two courses each complete in itself.

Prof. Tappan (Ohio University) thought that the question, *What shall we teach?* was not so important as the question, *How shall we teach?* It is not so much the subject studied as the mode of studying it that really trains the mind. He differed from certain opinions of a previous speaker concerning the success of the Oxford and Cambridge courses of study. The testimony of the Commission appointed by the English Government, and of Dr.

Whewell, late master of Trinity College, was referred to as conclusive evidence that the Cambridge course has been a decided success. Many of England's most eminent statesmen have been trained at Cambridge.

Prof. Hill (————————) was inclined to think that some things could, with great advantage, be added to our courses. Art should be studied as well as science. The elements of drawing should be taught. He thought that the classics received too great a portion of the time of students.

Hon. E. E. White (Columbus) said that we are confronted by the most difficult problem of education—the true course of study—and the high school period is confessedly the most difficult part of the course. There are no other three years of school life so difficult to provide for as from 13 to 16. Pupils at this age have not brains enough to master with ease the generalizations and principles of philosophy and science. They must reach generalizations through facts and details. Besides the high-school course must, in a measure, be a completion of what has preceded and a preparation for what is to follow. It must give the pupil whose school course terminates with it, the best possible preparation for life, and the pupil who is to take a still higher course, must be thoroughly fitted for it. The question of the best course of study for high schools embraces the entire problem, and can not be settled separately. The discussion has revealed that there are two radically different methods of solving this problem. The one ignores the requirements of mental training, and asks, What studies do parents wish their children to pursue? It divides pupils into classes according to their probable future pursuits. The other asks, What course will best develop and train the mind? Its stand-point is *subjective*. The true method is to settle, first, what the mind requires, and then modify this philosophic course to adapt it somewhat to external conditions. The problem before us is deeper than the condition and wishes of parents. He was getting tired of this talk about "practical" studies. The most practical result of education is *thought*. What is most needed in every pursuit is soul power. One objection to most high-school courses is, that they cover too much ground—cramming takes the place of training. Thoroughness in a few studies is better than a wide range of surface work. He concluded the discussion of the subject by discountenancing extreme and narrow views. The old system of education was not wholly a failure. There had been great men in the past. Plato lived before Pestalozzi.

The President read a communication from the Soldiers' Home, inviting the members of the Association to visit said institution.

On motion of Mr. Cowdery, the thanks of the Association were tendered to the officers of the "Home" for their kind invitation.

Mr. Crosby (Lima) then read a memoir of the late Mr. Wm. N. Edwards, of Troy, at the conclusion of which Mr. White made a few appropriate remarks.

Mr. Cowdery suggested the desirability of printing the memoir, and of distributing it among teachers.

Afternoon Session.

On motion, the following were appointed a committee to nominate officers for the coming year: Messrs. A. J. Rickoff, E. E. White, U. T. Curran, E. T. Tappan, and Wm. Mitchell.

The discussion on the Course of Study for High Schools was resumed.

President Merrick (Ohio Wesleyan University) maintained that the best course was that which gave an outline of all branches, with a detailed knowledge of some particular science or department. A few lectures would suffice to make one acquainted with the general principles of chemistry and geology.

Prof. W. H. Young (Ohio Universitiy) read a paper on "The Relation of Public Schools to Colleges."

Mr. Cowdery spoke in commendation of the essay. He thought there was every reason why the teachers of our public schools and colleges should all work together in harmony for the good of the children of the State. Any differences existing, whether occasioned by prejudice, ignorance, or from whatever other cause, should be searched out and removed. He sincerely hoped the paper read would have a wide circulation.

Mr. Copeland (Hillsboro) supposed it would be admitted that public schools have a specific work to perform, and that colleges have a specific and higher work to perform. Some think colleges should lower their standard, and admit pupils, for instance, who had not taken the preparatory course in Greek. He did not think this the true policy, or that the best interests of society would be subserved thereby. In some States, as in New York, instead of doing this, they have elevated the standard, and require more Greek, more Latin and mathematics in order to enter college. We need strong and vigorous minds instead of practical knowledge. The rising generation need increased mental power to enable them to grapple with the great problems of life, and enable them successfully to do the great work that will devolve upon them, rather than to store their minds with a vast amount of knowledge.

Pres. Merrick (Ohio Wesleyan University) said it was desirable, exceedingly desirable, that there should be harmony between our high schools and colleges. He supposed there could be but little difference of opinion on this subject. In the first place all should feel a common sympathy, a common interest in this matter, and feel that they are all workers together for one great end. With regard to the arrangement of the studies in high schools and colleges, there should be an agreement between them so that the one would be preparatory to the other. It struck him that the chief difference was a very narrow one. He believed the difference was almost, if not entirely, with reference to the study of Greek. In the college with which he is connected students are almost uniformly prepared to enter the Freshman class, except that they lack a knowledge of Greek. The question is narrowed down to this: Can our high schools in the State of Ohio give to students who wish to attend college the course of study required—a course of study which will embrace an elementary knowledge of the Greek language, such as is required throughout the State for admission to a college course? He confessed that he feared it could not be done. If it is done, he thought it must be introduced by means of a higher class in high school instruction.

Mr. Henkle wanted to tell college men they have got to come to the public schools, and not the public schools to the college. But few get to the colleges, and we must adjust our colleges to our public schools. The great mass who go out of our schools do so before they get to the High Schools, and of those who get there the great mass go out before they get to the college. In cities like Cincinnati, Dayton, or Cleveland, Greek may be taught in the high schools, but in most smaller towns, where we have high schools, the number who will study it is so few as not to warrant the introduction of Greek. In Salem this is the case, and he supposed it was so in other places. It is hard enough fighting to get them to study Latin. Many from Salem would go right into college if it were not for the Greek. The question is, Will you take them without the Greek? Will you refuse to take our graduates with all they may know after they are turned out of these well-organized schools in the State, because they have no Greek? The question is for the colleges to decide. You want the boys; get them if you can. If you let off the Greek, you will have more pupils in your colleges than if you continue to hold on to the Greek.

Pres. Merrick thought that if it is impossible to teach Greek in the high schools, then he would dispense with it. He had lately heard two distinguished Professors of Greek state that they would prefer receiving pupils who had no knowledge of Greek, but who were so advanced in other studies as to be able to devote more time than at present to Greek.

Prof. Tappan believed that the colleges could remove the difficulty by allowing pupils to attend those classes for which they were qualified. He knew of a college where such a practice had answered admirably well.

Pres. Hartshorn, in expressing his concurrence with Prof. Tappan's suggestions, repudiated, in emphatic terms, all intentions of lowering the standard.

Mr. Hancock expressed his extreme satisfaction at finding that things were moving on. He thoroughly believed in making the course elective, and was of the opinion that the day was not far distant when such would be the case.

Mr. Crosby moved that a committee of five be appointed to report to the next convention on the courses of studies for common schools and colleges.

Mr. Woollard (Cincinnati), in proposing an amendment, remarked that in education the expression of ideas was but a secondary object, the principal being the *acquisition* of ideas. All languages, whether ancient or modern, were but the *expression* of ideas.

Mr. White suggested that the proposed report be divided into four parts: (1) On Colleges; (2) High Schools; (3) Intermediate or Grammar Schools; (4) Primary Schools.

Mr. Crosby's motion was carried, and the following gentlemen were appointed by the President as the committee: Prof. Tappan—Colleges; Mr. Converse—High Schools; Mr. Crosby—Intermediate or Grammar Schools; Mr. Woollard—Primary Schools; Mr. White—to harmonize the whole.

After a recess of five minutes,

Mr. Henkle referred to the action of the Legislature on the question of County Supervision.

Mr. Curran (Cincinnati) thought the reasons for the proposed legislation so cogent and obvious as to make any discussion on it altogether superfluous. The chief difficulty is with the people, who need enlightening on the subject.

Messrs. Curran, Caldwell, and Mitchell were appointed a committee to prepare a report reiterating the sentiments of the Association on the matter.

Evening Session.

The Association assembled at 8 o'clock to listen to the Annual Address by Hon. Harvey Rice, of Cleveland, Ohio, who was introduced by the President as the "Father of the Ohio School Law." The address was listened to with profound attention, and Mr. Rice was warmly applauded on resuming his seat.

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Thursday, July 2—Morning Session.

The Association assembled at 9½ o'clock, and was called to order by the President. The exercises were commenced with prayer by Rev. Dr. Hartshorn, President of Mount Union College.

The principal topic for discussion, "How shall the Work of Teachers' Institutes be most successfully carried forward?" was ably presented by Hon. J. A. Norris, State School Commissioner. The following is an outline of the report:

He said that the subject assigned for consideration belonged to the business of the convention, not to idle moments for speculation. It was the undertaking of a work, or the continuation of a work already begun. He wanted the remarks he should make to lead the Association to action. For many years the society had been debating measures for the management of the public schools, but effectual action had rarely been reached. It behooved them to carry out enterprises commenced, and not to abandon them when just short of completion.

In 1845 the first teachers' institute founded in Ohio was located in Sandusky, Ohio, and following its example many institutes were established in various sections of the State. The work of agitating the subject of education at large grew out of the method of school grading in these institutes, and more correct views being widely disseminated brought about the law for the establishment and maintenance of public schools. But the institute work finally declined, owing to various causes, until we had but ten institutes in the State. This was to be greatly deplored; for the valuable feature of the institute system was, that it gave to teachers broader and more conservative views regarding their profession, besides thoroughly educating them in their profession. He would rather see the Commissioner's office go down than see the institute work decline.

It was a sad fact that in those counties in which institutes are most needed, they are seldom found. The teachers in thirty counties in the State had funds in the treasury, and yet the institutes were languishing, or totally neglected. The teachers thus got no returns from their contributions, and much dissatisfaction was the result. In many of the counties men had taken charge of the institute work who did not carry it out properly. They were incompetent to teach, were not earnest in their labor, disregarded their obligations, and brought the institutes into disrepute. Sometimes these men want more than is found in the treasury, and want to conduct the normal schools themselves, and have but one session annually. Even at this session the work is done imperfectly, and the instruction is worthless, oftentimes, in this normal course of four weeks, and teachers complain in their counties, and the people cast odium on the governing laws. There is competent instruction in some cases, and no opposition to the law. What may be done to remedy the defects? He apprehended that one refuge these men have is afforded by an excuse that they can not secure competent instructors. He would be glad to see that excuse taken from them, and see competent men secured at all times of the year. Frequently those able men who are engaged in the institute incur great expense to the Association, in traversing the whole State to reach their different charges. Normal sessions ought to be held consecutively, that they might be readily reached. It was better to have expensive, thorough teachers than incompetent persons, but he thought the rates of even competent instructors ought to be lessened.

He regretted that the Association was not making itself felt in legislative quarters. The Association had not done so much as it should have done in this direction. Wherever a State had largely controlled the education of the people, the educational men of the State make the laws and have them enacted. Character is thus given to the educational system. This was to be done only by combined action, and by continually pressing upon legislators the importance of the claims of teachers to thorough instruction. The question to be decided was, "What should the body do to control the educational policy of the State?" The removal of the causes of complaint against incompetency was one of the first things to be removed, and we should have men to single out those counties in which institutes were not founded, and have them combine the teachers and make an effort to establish institutes for their instruction. There had been men in the Association who had sought out the place where education was at the lowest ebb, and who had succeeded by their hard labor in arousing a mighty current of public opinion to sweep legislators to action. It might not be well to say that the work of missionaries was necessary to the attainment of the object, but it seemed to him that something very like it was called for. The cause of education in the State had never been so flourishing as when the Association, by its agents, had the work of advancement in its hands, and he felt that the teachers should now take some action for their own instruction. His proposition was this: that the Association put into the field persons qualified for the work of influencing the public and the Legislature to engage in the work that will lead the teachers, and that these persons be men who will give their attention to the cause. Such men, he thought, ought to have competent salaries. The teachers have in the county institute fund over $12,000. That should pay the salaries of these laborers. Competent men to be induced to enter the field would have to be assured of getting a salary commensurate with their ability for performing the task.

He thought proper to speak of the school department. It had not the influence it ought to have. There were abuses in it that ought to be remedied. The Commissioner of Schools presents his annual report—a mere reflex of the teachers' opinions. These positions are not presented as their own, but as his own investigations in educational matters. The teachers are thus precluded from giving their true opinions to the people as their own. The school departments ought to be so connected that when the annual report is sent in it would be to combine the enlightened views of all the teachers, instead of the opinions of one man. The School Commissioner's power would be increased a thousand fold if he were surrounded by ten such men as could be found in the Association, and, by counseling together and working in harmony, all could advance the cause of education in the State. He saw the way this work could be done, and he saw that the gentlemen must do it or it would go under. He asked that his proposition should be considered as that of one who had no personal objects to accomplish, but of one whose whole mind was given to the work. The Association was anxious to go forward, and not to recede. He would warn them against inactivity. He was not an alarmist, but he would conjure them to stand together, be vigilant, and direct their eyes to all avenues that might be commanded by them in the grand work of educational progress.

He was warmly applauded.

Prof. Young thought that some other means than those proposed by the gentleman for increasing the interest in teachers' institutes, might be discovered. The falling off of interest in the matter he thought attributable to the exciting events of the day that had absorbed public attention. There were now encouraging indications of a great revival in the institute work. In his own section of the State an increased number of institutes were now held. He thought it might be so in other sections, and bade the Association beware of another trial of an experiment that had once failed, but was now again introduced. By the acquisition of capable instructors the Association would secure the means of communicating with legislators, by indoctrinating them, and bringing them together, and by getting the entire teaching force to bear on them, they would accomplish more than ever before. He had been told by legislators that they had been unable to act decidedly on the matter because of the great diversity of opinion existing in different localities. He thought this was true, and hoped that by intercourse with each other, educators might be able to act with more unanimity.

Mr. Caldwell (Gallipolis) praised the ideas set forth by Commissioner Norris, and referred to the want of unity shown in the petitions on educational matters presented to the Legislature. The needed unity could be gained, if two or three able agents traveled through the State holding institutes and awakening an interest.

Mr. Rickoff (Cleveland) thought it would not be difficult to secure men who would do the work to the entire satisfaction of the Association. The operations of agents of the Association would in no manner interfere with the work of other institute instructors, and he hoped such men as would go out in the work —not two or three, but ten or twelve—would be engaged, and be granted a liberal compensation. When the last agent, Dr. Lord, was put in the field, he was given a larger salary than was given to the State Commissioner. At that time many of the friends of education had stood by the Association, and offered to sustain it by, he didn't know how many dollars. He knew that like friends could be created now, and held that the means proposed were well adapted to the end to be attained.

Mr. Tappan indorsed the proposition made by Mr. Norris, that there was an important work to be done, but was somewhat timid to make any movement in the matter, without some assurance of success. He was not in favor of getting into debt, as the Association had done a few years since, and alluded to the fact that the Association now owed John Haggar a debt of $200 that had remained unpaid for several years. He moved, however, that the subject be referred to the Executive Committee, with authority to take such action as they may determine upon, without running the Association into debt. He moved, secondly, that in reference to the second proposition, in which Mr. Norris so flatteringly asked them to aid him, they heartily reciprocate his confidence, and assure him that they will proceed at some suitable time to elect worthy persons to join him heartily in the advancement of the good cause.

Mr. Hancock said that he had been an advocate of county superintendency as the first work of the Association. He felt that no intelligent man would oppose any measure for the promotion of the institute work if he thoroughly understood its object. He was unwilling that the Association should assume pecuniary obligations which it might be unable to meet; but with a sufficient sum in the treasury to warrant the employment of some men like Owen or Mann—men who would make their influence felt and stop at nothing short of the consummation of their designs—he was sure they would succeed. He was in favor of referring the matter to the Executive Committee, and urged the committee to commence the work of subscription for the cause, not next week or next month, but this very day.

Mr. Cowdery (Sandusky) sympathized with those who were not willing to bring embarrassing obligations upon the Association, but believed that the $12,000 in the examiners' fund might be brought into the treasury of the organization, and be employed in sending out men to arouse a great feeling in the different counties on the subject of establishing places of learning for those engaged in the noble work of imparting knowledge to others.

The motion of Mr. Tappan was here put, and carried unanimously.

Rev. Dr. Sprecher, President of Wittenberg College, Springfield, O., delivered an able address on "The True Theory and Tendency of American Colleges."

At the close of this address, Mr. Rickoff, Chairman of the Committee on Nominations, presented as their report, the following named persons for officers of the Association for the ensuing year:

President—Lyman Harding, of Clermont county.

Vice Presidents—Pres. F. Merrick, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware; T. W. Harvey, Painesville; G. S. Ormsby, Xenia.

Recording Secretary—George W. Woollard, Cincinnati.

Corresponding Secretary—J. C. Harper, Bucyrus.

Treasurer—Geo. W. Walker, Newark.

Executive Committee—W. D. Henkle, Salem; John A. Norris, Columbus; Samuel Findley, Cleveland; J. F. Reinmund, Springfield; John Hancock, Cincinnati; E. T. Tappan, Athens; R. W. Stevenson, Norwalk.

Auditor—John Bolton, Portsmouth.

The nominations were confirmed by acclamation, and, on motion, the convention adjourned till afternoon.

Afternoon Session.

Owing to the attendance of quite a number of the members at other meetings pertaining to the interests of education, the Association did not convene until 2:40 P.M.

Upon being called to order, Master George Francis Ormsby, son of Superintendent Ormsby, of Xenia, entertained the audience for a few minutes on the subject of scientific geography.

The following resolutions commending the *Ohio Educational Monthly* to general patronage, were unanimously adopted:

[The resolutions referred to have not been received.'—EDITOR.]

Mr. Rickoff made a few remarks with regard to collecting and embodying in permanent form for preservation, the records of the Association from its organization to the present time, and moved that the subject be referred to a committee of three.

The motion was adopted, and the chair appointed Messrs. Rickoff, White, and Norris.

Rev. J. F. Reinmund (Springfield) read a paper on "Practical Language Lessons in School." A vote of thanks was tendered the author of the essay, and a copy requested for publication in the proceedings of the Association.

Mr. Curran, Chairman of the Committee on County Supervision, presented the following:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Association, that one of the first great steps in the educational interests of this State is the necessity of a law securing efficient county supervisors. That we recommend the reappointment of the present committee, and respectfully urge that they be diligent and unceasing in their efforts, hoping that although they may not be heeded for the justice of their cause, that they may be heard for their importunity and much speaking.

The resolution was adopted.

Mr. Crosby offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That we instruct the Executive Committee to arrange in the programme of our next meeting, for President Hartshorn's report on the public schools of Europe, as requested at our last meeting.

Messrs. Henkle, White, Mitchell, Hartshorn, Bragg, Copeland, Ormsby, Hancock, Curran, and others, were elected delegates to the National Teachers' Association, to be held at Nashville, on the 18th of August next.

The sum of $600 was raised by subscription to be devoted to the furtherance of the cause of teachers' institutes in the State.

The following resolutions submitted by the Committee, were adopted:

Resolved, That we tender our thanks to the school officers, teachers, and residents of the city of Dayton for their kind attentions in providing for the comfort and pleasure of the members of this Association.

Resolved, That we tender our thanks to the railroads that have so kindly extended return tickets to the members of this Association.

Resolved, That we tender our thanks to the officers of this body for the very able and impartial manner in which they have discharged their arduous duties.

Resolved, That we tender our thanks to the hotels for reduction of prices of board, and their readiness to contribute to our comfort.

Resolved, That we tender our thanks to the proprietor of this house for the use of this beautiful and convenient hall.

The business of the convention was thus finished, and the Association adjourned by singing the Doxology, to meet next year at the call of the Executive Committee.

W. JONES,
Secretary.

INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

BY PRESIDENT W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

The problems which educators are called upon to solve are comprehended in the following questions: 1. *Who shall learn?* 2. *Where shall we learn?* 3. *When shall we learn?* 4. *What shall we learn?* 5. *How shall we learn?*

In answer to the first question, very little need be said. In aristocratic countries the ruling classes are willing that the masses should learn obedience and reverence for their superiors in rank, but not a knowledge of letters unless accompanied by carefully-contrived checks. The recent extension of the elective franchise in England has brought our first question in a new light before British statesmen and political writers. The speech of Mr. Lowe, and the frequent articles in the English Reviews, as well as in the Tory Blackwood, show how greatly the educated men of England are aroused on this subject. As the right to vote has been given to the freedmen of the South, our southern brethren will probably change their views as to the expediency of educating the negroes. The answer to our general question also involves the question: "Shall women be educated?" Universal education is fast becoming, in this country at least, the universal doctrine. This fact, however, does not prevent a great diversity of opinion as to what extent the education shall be common, and to what extent it shall be specially adapted to the different conditions of life, such as sex and occupation.

Our second question, "*Where shall we learn?*" involves the relative advantages of home education and school education. The ignorance of parents, or the necessary leisure when the qualifications exist, and the expense of private instruction, practically excludes text-book education, except in a very limited way, from more than nine-tenths of the families in the United States. If, then, the great mass of our people are to be educated, they must be educated in schools. Hence arises the inquiry as to the relative value of different schools. It is plain that far the greater part of our people must receive their school education in the public schools. The advantages of these schools over home schools in several important respects have been frequently urged with a considerable show of reason. Parents whose means are adequate for the education of their children, and who have decided to educate them in school, have to weigh the relative advantages of public and private schools at home, and academies, seminaries, boarding-schools, and colleges abroad. It is not my purpose at present, to point out what I think are the good and bad characteristics of different kinds of schools. Before leaving this topic, I will say that professional education can best be acquired in professional schools. For instance, a young man can learn more about book-keeping in six weeks at a good commercial school, than in six months at an ordinary school, even though the teachers may be equally competent to teach it. In commercial schools it is the leading study, and hence calls forth, both on the part of pupils and teachers, the greatest amount of effort, while in other schools it generally holds a subordinate rank. It is, however, a matter of regret that a majority of those who do enter commercial schools, enter without sufficient preparation. It is scarcely necessary to refer to the advantages of schools of medicine, law, and divinity, for other schools do not undertake to compete with them.

Our third question is, "*When shall we learn?*" The briefest answer to this question is *always*, if we except the time spent in sleep. The old saying, "Never too old to learn," may be fitly accompanied by the equally true one, "Never too young to learn." But let us restrict the question to school learning. My own opinion is that school life, begun at eight and extended to twenty-five, would result in a prodigious advance in American scholarship, which, in general, has hitherto been notoriously low. Our social life is such that, for untold years to come, the great mass of pupils will be forced to leave school before they are seventeen years of age. This fact does not, however, furnish a sufficient reason for hurrying children to school as soon as they are five or six. A pupil entering school at eight will, in general, be farther advanced at twelve than by entering at five or six. In Salem the school of the first grade is divided into two divisions, the older pupils attending in the forenoon, and the younger in the afternoon. Three years' trial of this plan has demonstrated that the pupils are farther advanced at the end of the year than when they attended five or six hours a day. The physical gain is hard to estimate, but I am under the impression that the preservation of health caused by a diminution in the hours of confinement has resulted in a greater regularity of attendance.

Leaving this subject, let us pass to the question, "*What shall we learn?*" This is a great question, and many are the minds that are working at its solution. It is an old question, and the answers to it have not been universally received as correct. Hence, from time to time, it has been revived, and made the subject of earnest discussion. Thomas Smith Grimke, of South Carolina, in the year 1834, in an address delivered before the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers, proposed a plan of education which was distinguished by the exclusion of classics and mathematics. His high character and reputed learning gave great prominence to his views. He also promulgated these views in an oration delivered in the same year at Miami University. In accordance with appointment Nathaniel Holley read a report on the plan at the next meeting held in Cincinnati, in October, 1835. This report was mainly devoted to a defense of classics, as were the remarks of W. H. McGuffey on the motion to adopt it. Mr. Grimke's views were in part heartily indorsed. He recommended in strong terms an acquaintance with all our best authors and a thorough and extensive knowledge of the English language, including the ready use of it in writing and speech; an accurate knowledge of our own country, so far as relates to its history, geography, its manners, customs, government, and eminent men, such as theologians, historians, poets, statesmen, and scholars. He was, however, most urgent in his recommendations of morality, piety, and a strictly religious life, founded on the practice of Christian virtues and a close adherence to the doctrines of the sacred Scriptures. The common-school teachers all over the Western and Southwestern States, remember in one of McGuffey's Readers the eloquent reading-lesson, often used as a declamation, entitled "The Bible the best of

Classics," by Grimke. This extract illustrates Mr. Grimke's style and mode of argument. In the same year that Mr. Holley made his report, there was published in Cambridge, England, a pamphlet, by the Rev. Wm. Whewell, entitled "Thoughts on the Study of Mathematics as a part of a Liberal Education." In January of the next year (1836), there appeared in the Edinburgh Review an elaborate article on the study of mathematics as an exercise of mind, in review of Whewell's pamphlet. The author of this article was the celebrated Scotch metaphysician, Sir Wm. Hamilton. In April of the same year a short letter in reply was published in the same Review, followed by notes extending over three or four times as much space as Prof. Whewell's letter. Hamilton in his Discussion on Philosophy and Literature, issued in 1852, republished the whole discussion, and by this means it has become extensively known. A considerable portion of it was used in an article on popular education in the Western Democratic Review in December, 1854. It was also indorsed and to some extent quoted by the Rev. Dan. Shepardson, in an address on Humanities and Mathematics, delivered before the Cincinnati Teachers' Association, September 19, 1856. Sir Wm. Hamilton has not only given us his opposition to the educational value of mathematics, but in the Edinburgh Review for October, 1836, he gave his views of classical instruction in a review of "Three lectures on the proper objects and methods of education in reference to the different orders of society, and on the relative utility of classical instruction, delivered in the university of Edinburgh, November, 1835, by James Pillans, M.A., F.R.S.E., Professor of Humanity in that University." Among the lectures delivered at the meeting of the American Institute, at Worcester, Mass., in August, 1837, was one on the Study of the Classics, by John Mulligan, of New York, doubtless the same John Mulligan who has since written a work on the grammatical structure of the English language. I must be allowed to say here to those who have placed too firm a reliance on the authority of Sir Wm. Hamilton, and the apparent strength of his arguments, that they may find his famous attack on the study of mathematics completely repelled by a metaphysician, who is a worthy foe, John Stuart Mill. Mill's answer is in the second volume, twenty-fifth chapter of his recent work, entitled "An Examination of Sir Wm. Hamilton's Philosophy."

Let us devote a short time to the discussion of the claims of Latin, Greek, modern languages, mathematics, the physical sciences, metaphysics, etc., to a place in a liberal education. In some phases of the discussion there have been many false arguments used, some being plain cases of *non sequiturs*, and others being instances of a want of historical fitness. There is great danger, in estimating the effect of any particular study upon the mind, of using the argument *post hoc ergo propter hoc*, after this, therefore, on account of this. We have as yet a meager collection of well-arranged facts bearing upon this subject. Indeed the effects of different kinds of instruction are in some respects as uncertain as the effects of the greater number of medicines. If a man gets well after taking some nostrum, we do not certainly know whether his recovery is due to the nostrum, or is in spite of it; or, if he dies, whether his death is due to the disease or the nostrum. So if a man displays great reasoning powers, after having studied a particular study, we do not know how much is due the study, and how much to native ability and other causes.

These facts show the difficulty of deciding the relative value of different branches in respect to what is ordinarily called discipline. The question is much simplified when we confine it to the utilities of different knowledges. By the utility of knowledge I do not mean merely its applicability to the procurement of food and raiment, though this utility takes precedence in point of time of all higher utilities, and is the foundation of them. Horace Mann said: "It is hard to be religious on an empty stomach," and no doubt most starving men would assent to the assertion. As self-preservation is the first law of nature, it is evident that we should learn first to provide for our physical necessities, unless we should happen to be born with silver spoons in our mouths; and even if we should, it becomes a question whether we should not ignore the fact in deciding what we shall learn. Remove from the minds of the people the bread-and-butter argument for education, and our vast educational machinery would fall to pieces. No more taxes would be levied for the support of free schools, and college halls would echo to the tread of few students. This fact should be no cause for alarm. Indeed, we should rejoice that there is one argument for education so generally acknowledged that it serves as a basis for nearly every species of educational machinery. It seems to be a law of the Divine Mind to produce the greatest variety of results from the fewest elements. Indeed, Omnipotence is better displayed in the evolution of great diversity from unity, or a limited number of unities, than in the evolution of multiplicity from multiplicity. Chemistry furnishes a beautiful example of this fact. What a countless variety of substances, animal, vegetable, and mineral, are produced from a few dozen so-called elementary substances, which, in the distant future, will probably be reduced in number, possibly to unity. A like economy of forces, or elements, is seen in the fact that the bread-and-butter sciences and arts are also largely available for mind and soul culture, or have a labor-saving power which secures that leisure necessary to the highest development. The knowledge which secures the professional musician a livelihood is also available for his greatest enjoyment. The great poet lives by the publication of productions whose creation is his highest pleasure; and arithmetic, grammar, political economy, etc., so arrange, combine, and economize the forces of nature, that men may rise so far above the struggle for existence as to have the means and the time to be delighted and elevated by the creations of the poet.

It seems impious to say that nearly all ministers of the Gospel are supported by the practice of those things which are the foundations of their greatest happiness, but it is nevertheless true. It is a characteristic excellence of the highest departments of the teacher's profession, that, while they furnish a livelihood, they also furnish the basis of the greatest intellectual enjoyment.

The claims of business life, as well as the higher studies, agree in demanding that reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and grammar shall occupy the first place in education. The controversy is thus thrown into the region of the higher studies. In deciding the relative value of different studies, men are apt to be influenced by their own preferences, which may arise from natural bent or deep study in a particular direction. There is no subject which, when extensively and thoroughly pursued, has not the power of impressing the mind with its great importance. The able and thorough mathematician has a keener insight into the beauties of the exact sciences than other men have. The thorough classical scholar has a better knowledge of the influence of Latin and Greek than other men have. Similarly, natural science is best appreciated by the natural philosopher, and metaphysics by the metaphysician. A mathematical professor, if called upon to give the relative value of mathematics, classics, natural sciences, and metaphysics, would be apt to give an answer in which would be seen the influence of what might be called, according to Bacon, "an idol of the den." If the same professor were successively transferred to the chairs of ancient languages, physics, and metaphysics, and as soon as he had become thoroughly versed and absorbed in the studies, pertaining to these respective chairs, and the same questions were proposed successively to him, we should probably receive answers which would respectively show the influence of a classical idol, a physical idol, and a metaphysical idol.

Sir Wm. Hamilton said in November, 1836, that "It is natural that men should be inclined to sooth their vanity with the belief that what they themselves do not know is not worth knowing; and that they should find it easy to convert others who are equally ignorant to the same opinion, is what also might confidently be presumed." Sir William had given, in the early part of the same year, an instance of the truth of his remark, in his opposition to mathematics which he had never learned very critically or extensively. It is no wonder, that those who have never eaten good things do not know what good things are. Great caution is necessary on the part of those who have advanced far in the investigation of any particular department of thought, when they are called upon to give an estimate of the relative value of different studies. The following remark, made by the late Dr. Charles Anthon in the preface of his edition of Xenophon's Anabasis, indicates that his appreciation of natural science was considerably below that of eminent natural philosophers: "We have great reason to be thankful that amid the ticketing of plants and minerals, the watching of retorts and crucibles, and all the other mind-developing expedients of so-called practical education, the claims of classical learning, put in jeopardy by those who ought to have been their most active defenders, have still continued to be heard." Much may be said against the study of Latin and Greek, because the time spent produces such meager results. How many college-graduates ever acquire these languages so well as to read them with ease,—with that ease which is requisite to the pleasurable reading of the extended master-pieces of antiquity. He who is a slave to the lexicon and grammar of a language, has not a proper appreciation of its excellences or its literary productions. He who can read Latin and Greek works for the first time, with only an occasional reference to Latin and Greek lexicons, may then be said to have acquired these languages, especially if he is also able readily to express his thoughts in them. How few college-students, after leaving school, ever read any more Latin or Greek than what they learned as a part of college-curriculum? Moreover, how few in ten years, after leaving school, are able to read with tolerable facility, even the portions of Latin and Greek that they spent years in studying? Such small results from so much outlay of time have done much to bring classical studies into disrepute. But we must be careful to observe that small results are not confined to classical studies. How few of those who study mathematics ever get into the inner court? How few of the college-students that study the hand-books of mental philosophy ever get a clear insight into the great problems of metaphysics? How few students of the meager text-books on natural science, found in our schools, ever acquire that critical knowledge that characterizes such men as Faraday, Tyndall, Liebig, Owen, Agassiz, and others? The reason, probably, that so much opposition has been brought against classical studies is, that small results have been reached after the consumption of an amount of time that ought to have produced great results, while in other studies the small results have been reached after a smaller consumption of time. The undue preponderance of classical studies in many English schools was brought prominently before the public by the report of Parliamentary Commission in 1864, on the condition of nine of the great, so-called, grammar schools of England. Mathematical teaching did not become a part of the regular school course of the great Eton school until 1851. The report says: "Before 1836 there was no mathematical teaching of any kind at Eton." It gives the following statement from Prof. W. B. Carpenter, the physiologist: "I remember hearing Prof. Key, of University College, mention that he had, in early life, a private pupil who had gone through the complete Eton course, which at that time was only classical. Even ordinary Arithmetic was not taught, much less any mathematics; and he happened to find out accidentally, that this young man, an intelligent young man in other respects, not only had never learned his multiplication-table, *but did not know that there was such a thing as a multiplication-table.* He was buying several pairs of silk stockings in a shop, and to find out how much he had to pay, was adding the price of one pair to the second pair, and that to the third pair, and so on. When he found how much his labor would be facilitated by the multiplication-table, he applied himself to master it, and learned it off in a few days, with the keenest pleasure." In view of such facts, is it strange that classical instruction should be charged with occupying an undue amount of time to the exclusion of other studies?

The time was, when Latin and Greek bore a different relation to liberal education in Europe and America. At the revival of learning there were no great literary master-pieces or scientific works, except those that had been handed down from the Greeks and Romans. Latin became the medium through which scholars communicated their thoughts to each other. Newton wrote his Principia and Algebra in Latin; Bacon, his Novum Organon; Descartes, his philosophy; Hobbes, a portion of his works; Wallis and the Bernouillis, different mathematical treatises, and so on. Dr. Isaac Barrow, in 1675, presented to English students, in one volume, the works of Theodosius, Apollonius, and Archimedes in Latin. Many addditional examples might be given which would show clearly the great use made of Latin in disseminating the sciences of mathematics, metaphysics, law, medicine, and theology. Works of the imagination were restricted to the vernaculars of their authors. Hence we have Shakespeare's plays and Milton's poems in English, and Dante's, in Italian

The great men of the world have ceased to use Latin for the promulgation of their thoughts or discoveries, and hence its value has been lessened. The chief argument that is left for the study of Latin and Greek is, that they possess great value as a discipline or mental gymnastic. If these languages are so thoroughly learned by the student that he can peruse with readiness the great master-pieces of antiquity, their acquisition results in more than is usually meant by discipline.

I confess that I have no great admiration for the word *discipline*, when its primitive meaning is banished to give place to another. Discipline and disciple, both have their root in the Latin *discere*, to learn, and hence primitively discipline is learning. I firmly believe if the ordinary idea of discipline were traced critically to its source, it would be found to be knowledge, a knowledge of methods, modes of thoughts, etc., as contradistinguished from the simple knowledge of facts without their relations. My opinion as to *what we shall learn*, to be thoroughly and liberally educated, may be stated as follows: As discipline is a knowledge of methods, our studies should be sufficiently extended to embrace all species of discipline. This is the ideal toward which we should approximate. There is a discipline in the study of a monosyllabic language, like the Chinese, which can not be obtained in the study of an inflected language like Sanskrit, Greek, or Latin; indeed, all the great families of languages, as the Semitic, Tartaric, Polysynthetic languages of America, etc., have each a specific disciplinary value; and this remark may be made of the different members of the same family. Every additional language that we learn, even very partially, gives us a deeper insight into man as a rational being, and corrects notions that are apt to arise in a limited study of language, as to the range of human thought and its expression. One may be as highly delighted in acquiring a general idea of the modes of thought and expression adopted by the Chinese and North American Indians as of those adopted by the Greeks and Romans. The discipline of modern European language ought not to be neglected in a liberal education. The claims of these languages have been forcibly presented by Max Muller, the great philologist. He says: "The importance of the modern languages, for a true insight into the nature of language, and for a true appreciation of the principles which govern the growth of ancient languages, has never been sufficiently appreciated. Because a study of the ancient languages has always been confined to a small minority, and because it is generally supposed that it is easier to learn a modern language than an ancient one, people have become accustomed to look upon the so-called classical languages, Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, as vehicles of thought more pure and perfect than the spoken or so-called vulgar dialects of Europe. We are not speaking at present of the literature of Greece or Rome, compared with the literature of England, France, Germany, and Italy. We speak only of *language*, of the roots and words, the declensions, conjugations, and constructions, peculiar to each dialect; and with regard to these it must be admitted that the modern stand on a perfect equality with the ancient languages. Can it be supposed that we, who are always advancing in art and science, in philosophy and religion, should have allowed the most powerful instrument of the mind to fall from its pristine purity, to lose its vigor and nobility, and to become a mere jargon? Language, though it changes continually, does by no means, continually decay; or, at all events, what we are wont to call decay and corruption in the history of language, is in truth nothing but the necessary condition of its life. Before the tribunal of the science of language, the difference between ancient and modern languages, vanishes."

I do not propose to argue the claims of natural science to a place in a liberal education. They contain a disciplinary value not found either in language or pure mathematics, and hence deserve a prominent place in a liberal course. The great problem for educators to solve, is the proper adjustment of language, mathematics, natural science, and metaphysics, relative to each other. Many studies worthy of a place in a liberal course, must be omitted for want of time; and those that are retained, may be studied in a two-fold way and with a two-fold purpose.

There is a difference between literary scientific education and scientific training. A man may learn the results reached by scientific men, without being himself scientifically trained. Literary classical knowledge is different from classical training; literary mathematical knowledge, from mathematical training; literary metaphysical knowledge, from metaphysical training; literary social knowledge, from social training; religious knowledge, from religious training; literary artisanic knowledge, from artisanic training; literary art knowledge, from artistic training; literary poetic knowledge, from poetic training. If a man is unable to become scientifically and classically trained, he should at least attempt to acquire a fair knowledge of the literature of science and of the ancients. Translations are not all worthless; the English of a good edition of Euclid, is as good to learn geometry from as the original Greek. I have found the same thought in Dugald Stewart's Dissertation in the Encyclopædia Britannica. He says: "Of Spanish literature, I know nothing, but through the medium of translations, a very imperfect one undoubtedly, when a judgment is to be passed on compositions, addressed to the powers of imagination and taste, yet fully sufficient to enable us to form an estimate of works which treat of science and philosophy. On such subjects, it may be safely concluded that whatever is unfit to stand the test of a literal version, is not worth the trouble of being studied in the original."

Before closing these remarks, as to *what* we shall learn, I must not omit to refer to the great value of jurisprudence, one of the social sciences, both in a practical and disciplinary point of view. Space will not permit me to enlarge upon this subject. Every thoughtful person will immediately recur to the effect of legal studies in inducing great caution in the weighing of evidence.

Let us now briefly examine the last question: *How shall we learn?* Although there is no royal road to geometry, yet this fact should not lead us to conclude that there is no difference in methods of learning. It would give me great pleasure to discuss different methods of learning languages, mathematics, natural science, etc., but the subject is too large for this occasion, and I must content myself with one or two allusions only. The meagre results reached by years of study of the ancient languages, have already been referred to. It is hardly possible that the fault is entirely due to the subject. The method has, undoubtedly, much to do with the results attained. The following quotation is from Gibbon's *Memoirs*: "December, 1755: In finishing this year, I must remark how favorable it has been to my studies. In the space of eight months I learned the principles of drawing; made myself completely master of the French and Latin languages, with which I was very superficially acquainted before, and wrote and translated a great deal in both; read Cicero's epistles *ad Familiares*, his Brutus, all his Orations, his Dialogues *de Amicitia et de Senectute*, Terence twice, and Pliny's epistles. In French, Gianoni's History of Naples, l'Abbe, Banier's Mythology, and M. Rochat's *Memoires sur la Suisse*, and wrote an ample relation of my tour. I likewise began to study Greek, and went through the Grammar. I began to make very large collections of what I read. But what I esteem most of all,—from the perusal and meditation of De Crousaz's logic,—I not only understood the principles of that science, but formed my mind to a habit of thinking and reading I had no idea of before."

The twenty-fifth chapter of Montaigne's Essays, written about three hundred years ago, is entitled "Of the Education of Children," and fills seventeen double-column octavo pages, the last of which contains his method of learning Latin. I am greatly tempted to quote it, but I must not weary you.

In these remarks I have made no formal arguments, but have rather confined them to suggestions, and given a crude outline of the field to be examined. I have been compelled, for want of space, to omit some very important points, foremost among which is moral education. I conclude by leaving you with the great questions, *Who shall learn? Where shall we learn? When shall we learn? What shall we learn?* and *How shall we learn?*

OUTLINE OF THE ANNUAL ADDRESS.

BY HON. HARVEY RICE, CLEVELAND, O.

Mr. Rice began by saying that in the structure of society there should be neither defect nor want of harmonious results. In fact, every part of the social fabric should be fitted to its place, and go into place like the materials in Solomon's Temple, without the sound of the hammer. Whether we refer to social or to physical organizations, we shall ever find in the lessons of nature a safe guidance. In the operations of every natural law, there is an obvious design, a wise and benevolent purpose. However complex the character of her operations may be, nature never commits blunders; though she may indulge in occasional freaks, in whatever she does she looks to the ultimate perfection of her works; and, hence, she is ever engaged in refining her materials, and in working out a great problem which none but the Divine Mind can comprehend. The law by which she works is universal and ever active, and applies to mind as well as to matter. In man we see mind and matter combined—two natures, the intellectual and the physical. He only is a man, in the true sense, whose mental, moral, and physical capacities have been fully developed. To be twenty-one years of age and six feet high, does not of itself constitute a man. He must have the head, and the heart, and the soul of man, and must live for others as well as for himself.

The highway to knowledge, though rugged, is equally free and open to all. Whoever will may enter the temple of nature, interrogate her face to face, unlock her treasures and appropriate her wealth. This, the nineteenth century, has already been a bold one, and has done this to a considerable extent. It has knocked holes through the blind walls of the last ten centuries, and exposed to daylight the moles and the bats of antiquity, and still it demands more light. The degree of culture required to render man what he should be—God-like in character—admits of no compromise with ignorance, superstition, and sectarianism; but, on the contrary, involves the necessity of establishing such an educational system as will be adapted to the needs of the masses. It is to the masses that our country must look for her best material, for her future intellectual giants. Our country never needed intellectual giants more than now. But the age that produced a Clay, a Webster, a Benton, and a Jackson, has departed. The Revolution produced a Washington, but the world will never again produce a second Washington nor a second Franklin. In place of those heroes and statesmen who have made our past history illustrious, we how have men occupying public positions who are more distinguished for their aspirations than for their qualifications. If we would respond to the demands and comply with the requisites of the future we must educate the masses. As an encouragement to the friends of popular education, the masses have, to a great extent, been relieved from the necessity of constant toil by the introduction of modern machinery. In fact, genius has conquered time, and given time to the masses and afforded them leisure hours for the investigation of truth. Living in these times of improved methods and of labor-saving machines, we may be said to live longer in ten years than our ancestors did in twenty, and accomplish twenty times as much. The Americans have made more discoveries in the last fifty years than all the world beside. It is the effect of the operation of a physical law in connection with the result of a liberal system of education.

The speaker thought that by the repugnance to physical labor brought about by these facilities for performing work of all kinds, we were falling into inertia, and degenerating into a nation of speculators. Almost every man, nowadays, seeks to acquire wealth by some grand speculation other than by the sweat of his brow; and even mental acquisitions are often sought as a means of speculation, as a means of living without work, and hence we see the learned professions crowded to overflowing with genteel paupers. The doctors and the lawyers were gilding their signs with more gold than their pockets contained, but neither sought to visit upon himself the results of his mental acquisitions. A liberal sprinkling of dependent clergymen who are faithfully laboring to save dying souls, but yet are dying from want of labor—dying with chronic dyspepsia—because an erroneous public sentiment does not permit them to engage in so-called worldly business. This state of things showed that there were many errors in public sentiment that needed correction, and the public schools were the institutions to enter upon the work. The mission of the teacher is truly a mission of divine import, for it is the school teacher who molds the youthful mind and converts it into a casket of gems.

Our modern colleges were not *modern* enough. They looked to the ancients for wisdom, instead of seeking it, as devised, from nature. The dead languages were studied too much; the living too little. The natural sciences should rank highest in the curriculum; the dead languages lowest. Every farmer should be familiar with agricultural chemistry, and be able to apply its principles. No man is thoroughly educated who is not thoroughly instructed in the natural sciences. It is practical, not fanciful knowledge, as metaphysics, that the masses demand in order to secure their elevation and social equality.

In order to accomplish the education of our children in the shortest time, as we are attempting to do in our public schools, it is all important that we should provide them with such teachers as are competent to teach them lessons contained not only inside of books, but outside of books—lessons which abound both in the natural and in the moral world. They should also be furnished with libraries of standard works on all subjects.

It was absurd to suppose that all high attainment in art, in literature, and in science should, of necessity, be confined to the "learned professions." Education belongs to all who strive for its acquirement. It did not matter what a man professed to know, but the question was what did he know, or what might he know. Truth, though eternal, is never stationary, nor will the law of progress ever reach a stand-point. There is always something to be done—some vacuum to be filled. It is said by philosophers that nature abhors a vacuum. He did not doubt it—especially if it were a vacuum in the human head. He believed in filling heads with useful materials for thought. It was best to do it in youth, when the mind might be molded at will; but the cherished opinions of age can seldom, if ever, be either reversed or essentially modified.

No matter how conservative we may be in creeds and opinions, the world will continue to move onward, nor can it stand still if it would. The time was at hand when the venerable errors to which mankind still cling would not only be exposed, but exploded. However hopeless the condition of the masses might seem, they are already demanding more light, and would soon proclaim their own emancipation from mental thralldom.

The speaker concluded his address with an elaborate disquisition on the diverse characteristics of different races of men, and the natural causes that have brought about constitutional differences, modified by the effects of climate and by habits of life.

THE RELATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS TO COLLEGES.*

BY PROF. W. H. YOUNG, ATHENS, OHIO.

The relation of public schools to colleges comes to us in a three-fold aspect: their relation in theory, in fact, and in obligation.

The common school, high school, and college, all looking to general instruction, discipline, and culture as opposed to the special instruction of professional and industrial schools, are, in *theory*, largely and closely correlative. While the former two are, in *fact*, nearly allied, the third, in part by its own friends, in part by the friends of the other two, is mainly held aloof. All three ought to be largely and actively coöperative.

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* A paper read before the Ohio Teachers' Association, July 1, 1868.

There seems to be, in the growth of educational ideas, three distinct stages.

The first and that wherein most people rest, is the popular view of the old Grecian philosopher's notion: That *boys* should *learn* what *men* most need to *know ; i. e.*, the things that most directly meet our more obvious wants. This was the old, and still is the prevalent idea of the common school. Its briefest expression is "practical knowledge."

The second stage in the growth of educational conceptions, and that whereunto our people to-day, are fast rising, is that which recognizes discipline and the development of power and skill as an important office and end of education. This is, in part, the college idea. It may, more strictly, be defined the advanced popular idea of the college,—taking note of and resting upon the more obvious function of this grade of schools, but leaving, yet to be considered, a no less important one.

This advanced popular notion of the college is the germ of the public high school. The better educational observers and thinkers, recognizing the correctness and excellence of this college idea in education, have sought its embodiment, as far as possible, in the public school system. The result is the public high school. That this is a true account of this class of schools, is seen in the fact that, originally, their course of study was copied mainly from the college course: discipline was the leading feature in their methods, and college men were called to manage them. There could, perhaps, be no more emphatic indorsement of the college idea by public school men than this account of the public high school. True, of late, there has been a bent toward modification in each of the above particulars; but this only proves that educational leaders are where all *leaders* ought to be, in advance of the rank and file. We may rest sanguine that the public high school will yet be abundantly sustained, and even advanced beyond its original high conception in the minds of those who engrafted it upon our public school system.

There is yet, however, a third stage to be noted, in the growth of educational ideas. I trust it will be borne if I call it a yet *higher* development, a more refined growth. While, at first, we conceive education as the gaining of knowledge, then as the developing of power and skill, we need to rise yet beyond these, and conceive it as embodying a still higher culture—higher in degree, perhaps, rather than in kind, but still higher. The Roman gentleman would have expressed it by the phrase *summa humanitas ;* the Grecian by words implying exquisite workmanship, complete finish, high polish, etc.; we mean by it that refinement of thought, elevation of sentiment, moderation of feeling, and polish of manner and diction that come of close and prolonged study of science, grammar, logic, rhetoric, poetry, history, and the finest *models* the world affords in the several departments of literature.

This is the completion of the college idea in education. It is that part of it to which the popular conception, as yet, has scarcely risen. Yet there is *some* popular notion of it, and this with the fact that it can hardly be said to belong to the public school at all, has served to give the popular impression that this or something like it ill understood, is the distinctive feature of college education,—it being forgotten or never known that the college in theory and in fact passes far beyond both the common and high school in the amount of knowledge bestowed, power developed, and skill acquired.

If these views be correct, the relation of public schools to colleges is, in theory, about this:

The common school is meant to give that ready knowledge of the commoner ways and means of life which will enable the people to meet their more common, immediate, and pressing wants as men and citizens.

The public high school, borrowing from the college, would give the man an ampler store of knowledge, place him on a better vantage ground, and train his powers to higher and more successful effort, still, however, viewing him largely as the *citizen man.*

The college, assuming the common school work to be done, and that of the high school fairly begun, aims at a more thorough completion of the latter; opens new and richer stores of knowledge; exacts a severer discipline; develops a greater power; perfects a higher skill; gives a man a truer *conception* of himself; gives him a better, more perfect *use* of himself; and thus places him on that higher stand-point and with those higher powers, whence and whereby he *may*, if he *will*, do a higher work for himself, his brother, and his Maker. Such I conceive to be the relation, *in theory*, of the public school to the college.

Their relation *in fact* involves some modification of this.

First, neither grade of schools realize its own ideal.

The ungraded common school for want of intelligent management and efficient superintendency, is far below its potential value.

The high school for want of due appreciation in its proper office, by reason of an unfortunate diversion from its original aim,—being made to look too largely to special rather than general instruction,—and through unceasing and unwise tampering, has, as yet, failed to return the hoped-for harvest of good.

The college, attempting its work with inadequate means, and hence compelled to lower its standard and shift its plans in bidding for popular favor,—thus forfeiting the confidence of appreciative friends, failing to gain that of the indifferent, and giving occasion for disparagement by the unfriendly,—becoming more and more isolated from popular support, confidence, and sympathy, has come to lead, *too* often among us, a precarious, unsatisfactory, and sometimes an unprofitable existence.

But, again, the more discriminating friends and patrons of each of these grades of schools, appreciative of any advantages or excellences in the other two, have sought to incorporate them with their own, until, by gradual assimilation, their distinctive features have become less marked, though, but measurably, less real. This assimilation, though traceable in all, shows itself mainly in the adoption by the common school of the more disciplinary methods of the high school and college, and the recognition by the high school both of the practical feature of the common school and of the higher culture of the college. This apparent assimilation of the common and high school to the college, slight as it is in fact and impossible as it must be in its entirety, together with the yielding and lowering tone, in some cases, of the latter, has given rise to the absurd idea that the college may be dispensed with *in toto*, being supplanted by the public school. This attitude of indifference toward the college on the part of public-school men, arising in many cases to unfriendliness and in some to antagonism, finding its reciprocal indifference in the college, has wrought a breach in our state educational system, as untoward as unreasonable, and bidding fair to rend it in twain and largely neutralize the potential good of the whole by the actual opposition of its parts. Such would appear to be the relation *in fact* between our public schools and colleges.

The third aspect in which this matter presents itself, is the relation in *obligation* or *duty* between public schools and colleges.

The fact that the grades of schools under discussion are, severally, working far below their individual capacity—that though largely correlative in theory, and susceptible of efficient and even powerful coöperation in fact, yet their attitude of reciprocal indifference or antagonism prevents any general or systematized union of effort, and hence the reciprocal and general advantages of such united effort,—calls *loudly*, I think, for such attention and investigation on the part of educational men of the *true* spirit on both sides, as will lead to a better understanding of each other and the common interest.

This duty of public school and college men, to investigate more thoroughly their mutual relations with a view to more coöperative effort, is the first point I would make under this head of the subject. What else belongs here may be stated as claims affording at the same time ground for and matter of such investigation.

1. The college, in virtue of its theoretical, if not its actual relation to the public school, ought to stand at the head of the State educational system. Representing the highest grade of instruction and culture, and represented by those who ought to stand highest in educational character and repute, our colleges should be leaders in educational enterprise and advancement. And it should be a leadership based on no factitious claims to excellence, nor on any assumed *ex officio* priority; but founded in real, substantial claims to leadership, made good by hearty, laborious, and successful championship for the general good. How far this idea has been realized, let the history of college men in this association in the last twenty years signify; let the number of colleges on this floor to-day show.

2. The public school as at present, or as likely soon to be constituted, can, in no fit sense, claim to furnish that higher and completer education demanded in those higher walks and by those higher duties in life to which all should look and aim. It ought, then, to look to the college as the fit completion of the work itself has begun; and, so far as not inconsistent with other demands upon it, it ought to shape its foundation work for the college superstructure, and use its potent influence to have that deeply-laid foundation crowned with the grander and more beautiful edifice.

3. Reciprocally, the college having in control, mainly, the higher instruction and culture, becomes largely answerable for its diffusion; and is hence bound not only to foster and sustain the public school as the threshold to its halls, but to shape, as far as may be, its own requirements of admission to the capabilities of the lower schools.

These thoughts point clearly, I think, to a plain duty of public school and college men to take a livelier interest in each other's work; to desire such means and measures as will make their efforts more coöperative; and to strive for such adaptation of the schools to each other as will render our whole educational interest a system whose parts shall be harmonious and consistent, rather than a chaos of incongruous and antagonistic elements.

That this *can* be done needs no other argument than the fact that in other countries and states it *has* been largely done, or the home fact that in our own State the institution of the public high school has already more than three-fourths filled the gap between the public school and college. Let there be a fair effort on both sides to harmonize and adapt to each other the high school and college courses of study; a ceasing on the part of the high school absurdly to set up claims and aim at college grades, and on the part of the college, to reach down to the common school, out to the professional and industrial school, and around *everywhere* for little gusts of popular favor,—the whole, unbroken force of which it ought to command by its own intrinsic college excellence,—and let there be hearty, sympathetic, coöperative work by *all* for the *general* good, and the thing is in fair way to speedy and successful issue.

In this discussion I have said nothing of the difference in the means of support of the two schools. This I regard as an accidental, rather than an essential difference. When the college shall have won its way to high popular favor and become in the public mind a public necessity, it will be placed upon the same basis, financially, or on a similar or as favorable one as the public school. In my judgment, this can never be done by college men holding aloof from public educational enterprises and measures, and simply *waiting* for endowments and praying for State aid. Let them identify themselves with State educational interests, get into sympathy with State educational measures—a work grand and glorious enough for the most aspiring;—let them make themselves felt in State educational policy, and the State will not be slow to own their claims upon it. Colleges are never endowed prior to a conviction of their excellence and necessity. Let this conviction be forced upon the public mind, and the question of college support will no longer be a troublesome one.

To conclude I will repeat: The common school, high school, and college *in theory* are largely and closely correlative; *in fact* they are held and made independent, and too often antagonistic; in *obligation* they ought to be harmonious, mutually dependent and coöperative: and with a view to this such action in concert ought to be initiated here, as will secure their fuller adaptation to each other and promote that union of effort which is essential to the highest success of each and the general good of all.

PRACTICAL LANGUAGE-LESSONS IN THE SCHOOL-ROOM.*

BY REV. J. F. REINMUND, LANCASTER, O.

Mr. Chairman: By request I consented to prepare this short paper on "The Cultivation of Language in our Schools" in general, and in particular, "Practical Language-Lessons in the School-Room."

I am glad this subject is receiving more attention, and hope it will be thoroughly discussed at this convention. Already the conviction is pretty general, that in the place of mere grammar teaching, we want the thorough cultivation of language in our schools conducted in a perfectly natural manner. Many of our union schools have commenced this good work, and cheering results have been witnessed in the greater interest children take in composition writing, in the increased facility they have in the study of grammar, and in their improvement in the use of language itself. And I believe the time has come when this cultivation may be *systematized*, especially in our graded schools.

First, let me mention a few *general principles* and *facts* underlying the practical part of this work.

The cultivation of language *must begin very early* in the education of the child. It is amazing what a stock of words, and what facility in construction children have, when they commence school at the age of six. Surely this indicates that they are capable of making great progress in the use of language already in the first few years of their education at school. The first primary room, then, is the starting place.

But *how* must this cultivation proceed? The instruction must first be *informal*, in order that language may be a natural growth. At this early stage, no set lessons *need* be used, no rules are to be given. This is the *imitative* stage, and familiar conversations, accompanied by questions and answers and corrections, must be chiefly relied upon. The more *formal* lessons may commence in the second year of school.

From this it follows that the cultivation of language by no means commences with the use of the text-book. There must be extensive and systematic preparatory work before any book in grammar be used. A primary grammar should not be placed into the hands of our pupils, especially in the graded schools. The true doctrine is, *thorough oral* and *written* instruction in language, without text book, for four or five years, then advanced teaching by the use of a complete grammar, followed by a work on thorough analysis. In this way language continues to be a growth, and the study of grammar becomes rational, intelligible, and attractive.

Construction, *parsing*, and *analysis* must be combined through the entire course of *formal* instruction. Each one of these is absolutely necessary at every stage of progress; not always, however, in the same proportion. For the first few years mostly construction; for the next few following, about an equal proportion of construction, parsing, and analysis; in the last part of the course, more attention to thorough analysis,—never losing sight, however, of this three-fold combination.

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* A paper read before the Ohio Teachers' Association, July 2, 1868.

Oral and *written* exercises must also be combined at every step. Without *written* exercises no thoroughness can be attained in this department of study, any more than in spelling, defining, or any other branch. Children must see and criticise their own work. The mechanical itself aids, very materially, the processes of the mind. Blackboard, slate, and paper must, then, be freely used. Periodical, *written* examinations should be frequently conducted. This is the way to accuracy, elegance, and force in the use of language.

Further, the *proper use of the organs of speech*—good enunciation in every particular—this is also essential to language cultivation. Language must be uttered as well as written. If the hand, by writing, aids the mind in the production of thought, so do the mouth and ears. We want, then, good sound, distinct articulation, a perfect expression by the mouth, and a nice discrimination by the ear, as well as neat and accurate execution on paper. A good system of *Phonics*, faithfully used, will aid not a little in the entire course of training the expressive faculties.

These, then, are a few of the guiding principles of language cultivation.

Notice, next, the *successive stages of development*. I will only indicate these for the present.

I. The *imitative* and *intuitive stage*, in which we may employ the following means:

1. Properly encouraging and directing conversation.
2. Conducting reading in a natural way.
3. Correcting mistakes in recitations and all other intercourse.
4. Copying sentences from various sources.
5. Dictating from books, or one's own sentences.
6. Narrating incidents, asking questions, and receiving oral and written replies and descriptions.
7. Committing to memory and reciting pieces suited to the capacities of the children.

II. The *constructive stage*, in which the following appliances may be used:

1. Conducting object-lessons, oral and written.
2. Letter-writing and easy composition, including also the writing of business forms.
3. Picture object-lesson composition.
4. Converting easy poetry into prose.
5. Promiscuous placing of words, to be arranged into a sentence.
6. Several and progressive steps in construction and analysis, similar in plan to the first part of "Greene's Introduction." Here the nature and use of words may be more fully pointed out, the parts of speech named, and the preparation for the use of the text-book—at about the age of eleven or twelve—completed.

III. The *scientific stage*, including:

1. Elements of words.
2. Parts of speech and parsing, including also outline reviews.
3. Syntax of sentences, phrases, and words. Here we construct, reconstruct, classify, transform, correct, and apply rules.

4. Analysis, including outline of analysis.
5. Diagraming.
6. Constructing sentences, according to required conditions.
7. Rhetoric, composition, and logic.

I will not have time to speak of these successive stages of development. Will have occasion, however, to refer to a few of their appliances presently.

The question now arises, Can all this be attended to in connection with the prosecution of the several branches taught, or shall we have distinct and systematized language-lessons? As in object-teaching, so in language cultivation, the all-pervading *spirit* of the matter must be regarded more important than the mere form. First and foremost, there must be a constant attention to the language used in all recitations and conversations, and opportunities sought to awaken the pupil's own thoughts, and to aid him in expressing these in the best possible manner. But in addition to all this, especially since grammar is still taught by many in such an unnatural, inverted manner, we need also a graded course of language-lessons.

1. *Letter-Writing* may be embraced in such a course, commencing as soon as children can write legibly—which they may be taught to do in their first year—and extending over the entire school period. I am convinced by what I have tried, that children may early write neat little letters. Furnish them with materials, and indicate the form and arrangement on the blackboard. Make the exercise a sociable entertainment. Let some of the letters be addressed to the teacher, and sometimes to other pupils, or to some little friends abroad. These letters must, of course, be corrected. The blackboard may be used, in part, for this purpose. Models should be presented frequently by the teacher. These exercises may alternate with other language lessons; may be conducted as rhetorical exercises, on Friday afternoons. They may also be made a specialty, at times, and be used more frequently than once a week. The items of correction, in the successive stages of progress, are too obvious to require mentioning.

2. *Object-Lessons* afford excellent opportunities for language-lessons. Indeed, the great design of the former is to cultivate the expressive faculties. When conducted only orally, they accomplish but a part of the good designed. Let the object be carefully examined, and made the subject of conversation. Next, let the names of the parts be written down, usually in a classified way, that you may have a general and systematic outline. Then let simple yet careful sentences be constructed, expressing name, parts, nature, origin, use, etc., according to the character of the object and the age and progress of the pupils. With the younger scholars, the sentences may sometimes be constructed by the teacher on the blackboard, elicited from the scholars by questions, repeated orally by them in concert, and then copied on their slates.

In this connection, I have found *pictures* exceedingly useful. Here we take, as one of the first and easier exercises, a picture containing a number of objects, respecting which it is designed to make simple and short statements. The children look carefully at the picture, and name the objects in it. These names are placed on the blackboard and slate promiscuously, and something is said respecting each, either by itself or in its relation to the other objects on the picture. Each expression should be made a complete and correct sentence, sometimes volunteered by the pupil, at other times elicited by the questions of the teacher. Each sentence should be written down by the whole class or school; may also be repeated orally in concert. Here is free and easy construction.

A further step consists in grouping or classifying these names of objects in the picture, and requiring the pupils to say something respecting the relations of each class of words, and thus including all the words of the group in the construction of a single sentence usually. Several sentences may thus be made from a single picture. To avoid complication, let the sentences be short; and for the sake of variety, let them differ in form. This exercise is adapted to children in the third and fourth years of the school course, or to the third and fourth reader classes. The more simple picture exercises may be commenced a year sooner. In all these, criticisms are offered by the children in regard to spelling, punctuation, the use of capitals, and construction.

In the same manner a picture containing but a single object, may be used; as, for example, a horse or camel. Here the analytic process becomes more difficult; the naming, classifying, and describing of parts more complicated and indeed scientific. Such pictures must either be simplified for younger scholars, or used only with the more advanced. Sentence-making must here again be adapted to the capacities of the scholars.

I know of no method of language culture more attractive and useful to the younger scholars than that which employs pictures. And that man who will prepare and publish a good systematized course of Picture-Object-Lesson Composition for the use of teachers, will, in my opinion, be a benefactor of our schools.

3. A *Building-up* process of constructing sentences must also be included in a practical course of language-lessons.

The children select some object about which they propose to say something. They determine whether to speak of one or more. Place the name of the object on the blackboard and slates. Distinguish between name, object, and sound. Say what the object *does*. This is the best affirming word to use first, denoting *action*. Afterward what it is, and what it *receives* passively. Have the pupils utter the sentence distinctly. Ask them simple questions: "Of what do we speak?" "What word repesents the object?" "What is said of the object?" "What word represents the act?" "We have now a sentence: Bird flies." "A sentence is a collection of words in which we say something of an object." "Here we have a short, yet complete sentence, containing only two words." "Write it on your slates as on the blackboard, and see that you commence with a capital letter, and write distinctly and spell correctly." "Now, utter the sentence in concert." In like manner extend and write out the same or other sentences, by developing the parts of speech in the following succession generally: The noun, verb, article, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection, and pronoun. Lead them gradually to the naming of the parts of speech, by using such terms as "object words," "affirming words," "quality words," "manner words," "relation words," and so on. This building-up method will admit of five or six courses of gradual progress, each succeeding course containing a larger number of the properties belonging to each part of speech than the preceding. In the *first part* of this series, the parts of speech may or may not be named in the usual way. Several school years may be included in this course; the advanced stage of it immediately preceding the use of the text-book in grammar. A common-sense analysis should accompany this building-up plan. Indeed, one of the most useful methods in the entire course of language-training is to have, frequently, a common-sense talk about sentences, without naming the parts of speech at all. Let pupils analyze their own expressions in this manner. I have found this exceedingly useful even in the senior grammar school.

4. *Composition-Writing*, in the usual sense and way, should commence much sooner in our schools than is usually done. It is difficult to say at what school period children should *not* write essays. As soon as they can write pretty well—and this should be at the age of seven or eight—they can spread on slate or paper their little sentences, a few of which on an easy subject may be sufficient to constitute an essay for them. Even the more dignified composition-writing may be attempted by many children at nine. I have been delighted with many such efforts at that period. If you want to cultivate a true *relish* and an *originality* in behalf of this work, and take away its *burden*, be sure you introduce it early in school. By doing so, one hundred essays may be written by the pupil before coming to the senior grammar at school, in addition to many letters and other language exercises. These are not only *possibilities*, but are beginning to be *realities* in some quarters. Let timely and suitable subjects be assigned, and made the subject of interesting conversation before writing. Make the theme interesting by inquiries, suggestions, and pointing out its intrinsic excellence and practical uses. Inquire of the pupils during the interval of preparation, as to their progress. Show your interest in every possible way,—inspire, encourage, aid when necessary. On the day of rhetorical exercises, secure good reading, close attention, faithful criticism, lively interest, arouse all to the importance of the occasion, and make it the best day of the week. I have seen pupils all aglow with interest on Friday afternoons. So correct the manuscripts afterward, as not to repress, but encourage and direct. Where there is a knowledge and *will* with teachers, there is a way to make composition writing a success with pupils.

I will leave it with others at this convention, to speak of the important use that may be made in language-cultivation, of narratives, moral tales, and current events, by dictating and relating these to the pupils. In the one case, the pupils copy the exact language; in the other, the substance from memory—and in each case the manuscripts are corrected as in composition writing. Thirty years ago I received drills of this kind that have been valuable to me ever since.

I trust, too, that in our grammar schools we will never lose sight of the absolute necessity of requiring a large amount of *construction* from the pupils. Let them furnish from their own stock of thoughts and language, examples and illustrations for both parsing and analysis. Conditions given, let them construct. If we wish them to be thorough grammarians, we must often drill them in this manner; and this will aid them very materially in composition-writing.

And now, Mr. Chairman and friends, we want precisely two things: correct *theory* on this subject, and faithful *practice*. I trust we shall not only discuss methods and compare notes *here*, but put whatever good we learn into vigorous use *hereafter*. We fail more in the latter than in the former. Perhaps there is not so much ignorance here as indifference. If we really understand this matter, it is high time to go to work, expressing our opinions in a most practical manner in the school-room. We, especially as superintendents, must have system, method,—must give model lessons from room to room—must instruct teachers—must require so much to be done in language-lessons as in any other, and see that the work be actually accomplished, and that according to a specific plan. If *we* have the right method and *spirit*, let us infuse these into our *teachers*, so that by their hearty coöperation we may secure a deep and abiding *interest* in the cultivation of the expressive faculties.

THE TRUE THEORY AND TENDENCY OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE.*

BY REV. S. SPRECHER, D. D., SPRINGFIELD, O.

The distinctive sphere of the College.

It has its own peculiar and necessary functions in a highly civilized and christian nation.

Human society is sustained by four great institutions—the family, the state, the church and the college. Each of these has different relations and distinct functions. The family is at the bottom, the college at the top; the family is the foundation, the college the capital of the social pillar. The family is the starting point; the college the culmination of the educating force by which society is developed into the most complete state of humanity. The immediate object of the family is, by instruction and sympathy, by discipline and example, to develop the physical powers, to educate the moral sentiments and to excite the religious susceptibilities; the ultimate result is the preparation of good citizens for the state and worthy members of the church. The immediate object of the state is, to maintain the public freedom—to secure the rights and protect the person and property of every citizen; its ulterior tendency is the highest civilization of man. The immediate object of the church is, by instruction and discipline, to secure the piety and spiritual salvation of individual men; the final effect will be the universal holiness and happiness of society in the promised millenial kingdom. The immediate object of the college is, the scientific training of men—scientific culture, the development of the scientific capacity, and the diffusion of the scientific spirit; the necessary tendency is to facilitate the work of the family, the state and the church, in promoting the highest and most complete humanity.

While the ultimate tendency of all these is the same, their immediate objects are different. As they differ in their immediate functions, so they differ somewhat in their means. And even when they use the same means, they differ in their methods. Thus while they all use knowledge, they use it in different forms. While the family, the state and the church deal with knowledge mainly in a popular form, the college communicates it in a strictly scientific form. Now science, in its strict sense, not only investigates general laws, but it cognizes conditioning principles; it not only systematizes the phenomena of nature and of mind, but it expounds them, in the light of intuition—by the necessary truths of the reason. To give strictly scientific training to the youth, to communicate not only knowledge to them, but knowledge penetrated by science, is the true function of the college. And this is distinctive of the college, is peculiar to it, and among all the educating institutions, this function can be properly and effectively exercised only by it.

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* An address delivered before the Ohio Teachers' Association, July 2, 1868.

For the accomplishment of its end, the family must give instruction, but the capacity of its subjects, makes scientific instruction both impracticable and unnecessary. To secure the end of public freedom, the state must communicate knowledge; but it must be knowledge for all—knowledge which is necessary to prepare all for exercising civil rights, for performing the duties of social life, and for conducting the various operations of productive industry in civil society. She does not comprehend the whole being of man, nor can she educate and control all his activity. His spiritual nature she must leave to the government of God alone, and his scientific capacity lies beyond her immediate reach. She may not, therefore, aim immediately at making men either pious or scientific. She can immediately make only such provisions for instruction in knowledge as all need, and all can enjoy. As the immediate end of the church is piety, she can, immediately, make only such provisions for the communication of instruction as is necessary for piety; and as she aims at piety in all the weakest as well as the strongest intellect, she must communicate not scientific but popular knowledge. Men perish spiritually for lack of knowledge, but not for lack of science.

Now it is true, on the one hand that science in its incipiency is present in all instruction, and, on the other, that the best condition of both church and state will involve the presence of science in full development.

In one sense science is universal—is a natural prerogative of man. It is not infused into the spirit, but developed out of it. Facts are communicated; science is evolved. All the operations of the human mind are, more or less, scientific. Humanity is scientific. Man is capable of science just because he is a person. His knowledge not only ends in science, but it begins with science; and his science not only ends with the cognition of his personality, but it begins with it—is made possible by it. He himself is not comprehended in the process of science, but his personal nature—his spirit is comprehensive of it. The scientific idea underlies all his knowledge. His activity in church and state, even in its lowest forms, is from a spirit of science, and differs from that of the brute in that it is from and under a rational idea. But the rational idea from which man acts is not necessarily or always in consciousness. Science is not the result of experience, but of intuitions of the mind. Sensuous experience is the occasion, but rational intuition is the source of science in the strict sense. Chronologically we become conscious of science first through experience, but an analysis of that experience shows that the intuitions of the spirit were first, and that they made the experience itself possible—made it an experience such as no irrational animal could have had. In the order of time the empirical is first; in the order of nature, and of intellectua necessity, the rational is first. This spirit of science, even though present only in unconsciousness, gives all the living unity and power which sensible and popular knowledge possesses. It is to knowledge in the state what the Holy Spirit is to instruction in the church. As the Holy Spirit makes supernatural truth efficacious to the subjects of religious instruction, so the spirit of science makes the knowledge communicated by the state efficacious, and enables it to govern men by means different from those by which brutes must be governed. What special outpourings of the Divine Spirit are to the church, that revivals of the spirit of science are to the state. Human science can not comprehend supernatural truth, and hence that can be made efficacious by the Holy Spirit alone; but it does comprehend natural truth and, consequently, gives to it unity and power.

But while it is true, on the one hand, that science in its incipiency is present in all knowledge, making it available for many of the practical purposes of life; it is equally true, on the other, that science in clear consciousness and full development, is necessary to the exercise of some of the highest and noblest functions of society.

It is of direct importance to the state in order to enable men to apply all knowledge with efficacy to the high ends of civil society and of rational humanity. And it is indirectly necessary in the progress of the church, as it enables men to distinguish between the different grounds of validity in our knowledge, according as it rests upon the demonstrations of reason or upon the evidence of testimony, and to give to each its proper and due value; as it prepares them to appreciate the claims both of reason and of revelation, to receive the inspired teachings of the Sacred Scriptures, and to feel the necessity of the gift of the Holy Spirit—to carry the spirit of science into every thing which comes within its comprehension, and to inspire the spirit of reverence, faith and prayer for all that lies beyond its range. Both the church and the state are greatly benefitted by science. For their highest development and their most complete success they need the results of scientific culture. They need men of scientific training to be statesmen and rulers—to be teachers in schools and teachers of religion;—for the best practice of medicine, law, and theology; for the performance of those labors of investigation and application of the forces of mind and matter which are so necessary to the restoration of man to his original prerogative of self-government and of dominion over nature; in short for the highest attainments in civilization and religion, for the development of the best state of humanity in civil and ecclesiastical society.

But important and necessary as this scientific training becomes, in the course of social progress, we repeat that it properly lies beyond the immediate reach and control of both ecclesiastical and civil power.

Neither the state nor the church may make scientific culture its immediate end. Man can be a good citizen and a pious child of God without the consciousness of the scientific idea, or the possession of the power which science bestows. So far as the immediate ends of the state and the church are concerned, science in its conscious development, is necessarily subordinate to popular and universal instruction.

To be more particular. The state-school is, in the nature of the case, limited to the purpose of training the youth for the public freedom. It can claim their attention only during that period of life, when they can not as yet have entered upon their life-calling. It is, therefore, only a preparation of the citizen for a further development, by means of a life-vocation. Its essential characteristic is, that it does not give education for the sake of education, and consequently does not aim to complete it, but would secure only the practicability of its completion, in a future calling. It is, by no means, its function to bring science into the possession of all or to make all the citizens of the state learned men; but to afford to every citizen the opportunity to develop the intellectual and moral capacity necessary for the attainment of a true manhood in general, and for the fulfillment of the duties of some one of the vocations of social life. The education of those thus prepared is finished by the future life-vocation. Scientific culture, the scientific training of youth, which is the work of the college is itself one of these life-callings, for which the state-school is only a preparation, as it is for the rest. It can, with no more propriety, be put under the control and management of the state, than any other trade or profession of life. It must be sustained and managed by patriotic citizens and intelligent christians under the protective and fostering influence of the state and the church. The common school is a necessary preparation for all the different life-callings, and must, therefore, be sustained and controlled by the state; scientific culture of which the college is the exercise, being itself a vocation of social life should neither be monopolized nor controlled by the state. She should limit her schools to their appropriate function of a general preparation for all vocations, and entrust strict scientific culture as an important life-calling to the enterprise of private citizens; making only such discriminations in their favor as she does in other callings, which are necessary and yet pecuniarily unprofitable to those who pursue them. Thus is the college, as an institution for scientific training, seen to have its own peculiar and distinctive life.

The work of scientific training a distinct vocation of life.

The college is the embodiment and exercise of that scientific training, which, in the source of social progress, becomes a distinct vocation. In proportion to the fullness and power of social development will this be the case. Now in all the states of life, from the lowest to the highest, it is a law, that the results of activity are great in proportion to its division. In the lowest forms of animal life all its functions are exercised by a single organ—the whole body is a single organ—every part equally performing the offices of mouth, stomach, lungs, heart, &c. But there is little power of life in such a body. The higher the scale of animal being the greater the number and variety of organs, and the greater the division of functional activity, the greater the power and the expression of life. So in the social body, the greater the division of labor the greater is the productiveness of human industry. In the diversity of life-callings which result from this principle, we will have also a scientific vocation—a vocation the object and work of which will be to concentrate the activity of the rational spirit upon all human knowledge, to distinguish its transient elements from its permanent ground and source, to divide it organically and to unite it systematically; in short, to elevate it to the character of science, and to make that science to the body politic what the brain and eye are to the natural body.

This devotion to science may become a life-calling—a vocation, which is purely scientific; knowledge its subject and science its end, a penetration of knowledge for the sake of science. Others who do not make it a life-calling, but only a preparation for another to be exercised upon the foundation laid during this period of transition, will, for a time at least, pursue science for its own sake, and not for the sake of the application or use which is to be made of it. To have the proper preparation from scientific culture for their ultimate object, they will feel that they must, for a time, live for science—must allow all their powers to be absorbed by its claims—must study as if their sole object were to be masters, and their entire present pursuit were to be students of science.

For some vocations of life this is necessary. For the learned professions, as they are called, for those vocations which are connected with the restoration and preservation of bodily health, of social rights, of spiritual salvation—such as the practice of medicine, law, divinity—such a scientific training is, as a rule, indispensable. It has been well said: "Those who become brilliant and eminent in the professional classes without training or by a process of self-development and self-instruction, are exceptions, and should not be used as data for the establishment of a general proposition. A general expectation of eminence and success, without culture, or by unguided culture, at the first, is as absurd and preposterous as it would be for every insect on the land to expect to be an original luminary, because a few animals are of themselves phosphorescent—for every fish in the sea to expect to be a galvanic battery because some eels have electrical power—for every lump of iron to expect to be a mariner's compass, because a few specimens of that mineral are endowed with the magnetic principle." Yet it would be better to say, or at least should be said, also, that it is only in nations where scientific culture has become a life-vocation, that this self-instruction and self-development are found—that it is only in nations full of colleges that you find your literary and scientific self-made men—that it is not among barbarians, but in countries of the scientific culture of a Scotland or a New England that you find your Burnses and your Franklins. If once the spirit of science be diffused, as by successful colleges it will be, many will become students of science who have never been within their walls. But all truly self-made men have undergone scientific training, have been students of science, have, somewhere and for sometime, pursued it for its own sake and from a love of the pursuit.

What is necessary for some, is useful for all vocations of life. In a high state of social development, not only professional men, but artisans and others n vocations involving more of manual labor, will often seek a scientific training as an important preparation for practical life. They will feel a strong desire to fulfill their life-calling of whatever kind or in whatever sphere it may be with the consciousness and the power of science. And it will always be not merely ornamental, but useful to have such a basis for improvement in the most practical callings of life. It is from men who thus unite, in themselves, thought and action that most of the improvements in the arts of life will proceed.

But the spirit of science has another characteristic which will always make it claim the devotion of civilized and christian nations, and cause the work of scientific training to become a distinct vocation. As the scientific idea, even in the unconsciousness of its existence is present as the grand distinction of man's personal being, so in its full development, it is manifested as the distinguishing glory of his rational nature. As knowledge is the full bloom, so science is the ripe fruit of the human spirit. It is by this spirituality of science that human society first attains to the full consciousness of a true humanity. By it the individual breaks away from his isolated position, and elevates himself to the consciousness of a true and universal humanity; and the nation transcends all mere state limitations and is exalted with all its institutions to membership in universal humanity. Man, as an individual and as a society, is penetrated by the spirit and impressed with the character of humanity; and the state in all its functions, at home and abroad, receives from science that universality of spirit which overleaps all the boundaries of space as well as of time; and, appreciating every race of human beings and every sphere of human life, prepares the way for the union of all men and nations as one vast brotherhood in Christ, their common Lord and brother.

From the development of the work of scientific training as a vocation of life results the college.

From the tendency and necessity of the cultivation of science in the course of social progress, originates the institution of the college. The proper scientific training of youth requires an institution, in which there shall be a division of lâbor, but a union of laborers. The domain of knowledge is immeasurable and, consequently, the range of science is boundless. Its limits will never be reached, its heights never scanned, its depths never fathomed. All spheres of being, nature and spirit, the earth, the plant, the animal, the mysteries of the human heart, the laws of the human intellect; in short, all manifestations of being are its objects. To subjugate, in its entire extent, this vast realm of knowledge—to cultivate, universally, this immeasurable field of science, would, for the individual, be impossible. The principle of the necessity of a division of labor holds, consequently, in the vocations of the rational, as well as in those of the natural sphere. As in the latter the different vocations, such as agriculture, manufactures and commerce, have each, in the highest state of social life, the utmost practicable division of labor; so the work of scientific training is not only a distinct vocation, but one which has its necessary division of labor. As the practical vocations of life run out into many particular branches, all however related to each other, mutually supplying each other's wants, interpenetrating and completing each other in one common living whole; so the one great vocation of scientific training, though one organic whole, has a variety of branches, each of which may claim a certain sphere of distinct existence.

There are different sciences or branches of science. Some one of these particular divisions of the one great science, the individual may successfully pursue; and in every cultivated nation, there will be a variety of individual tendency corresponding to this diversity of branches in science, so that each will have its representatives. Thus will it follow from the organic operations of a nation, that there will be a division of labor, but a union of laborers in this universal cultivation of science. The true representatives of particular sciences will feel an inner sympathy and desire for reciprocity—the necessity of society—of an outer-bond expressive of the inner union which, from the nature of things, existed already from the beginning of the division. The necessity of such a union will also be felt, by those who are engaged in the scientific training of youth, and such a society is the college. It is a gathering together of free representatives of science—of men whose special activity is for the promotion, and whose chief satisfaction is in the success of thorough scientific education. This is the life-element and the true form of the college. The teachers in it must be men who feel the necessity of infusing their own scientific spirit—their second self into others.

Such men find their true vocation in the college. Here they will be met by minds susceptible of scientific education—*students* as anxious to receive as they are to impart rational culture. Such an institution will be a point of attraction to youth of scientific capacity; they will come from all sides, and seek to imbibe its spirit. When such teachers and such students meet, the process of true scientific development and training begins; and such teachers and students, and only such, constitute a true college. This innate delight in teaching and in studying—this free spirit of science, is the only true bond between the master and the disciple of science in the college. He who does not feel this inner movement, either to communicate, or to receive the pure scientific impulse—who knows not how to be either the excitant or the recipient of this free cultivation of science, should remain away from the college. His spirit is not suited either to the master or to the disciple—he is not fit to be either a teacher or a student in such an institution.

The word college was happily chosen as the name of this institution. In both the etymological and historical sense, it expresses the idea better than the word university. The choice of the word, in the sense of a society of men engaged in some common employment, and signifying, in this instance, a society for the common pursuit, in its different divisions of the one universal science—the prosecution of the one great work of scientific training, was happy. The word university, as Webster says: "Means an assemblage of colleges established in one place. * * * * A universal school in which are taught all branches of learning, or the four faculties of theology, medicine, law, and the sciences and arts." It means a collection of schools rather than a gathering of men of science—masters and pupils of science. Now the teachers in the college are, not so much a faculty for the commuication of knowledge of any particular kind, as a union of power for the infusion of the spirit of science into knowledge of all kinds. The success of the college depends not so much upon the number of sciences pursued, or upon the number and variety of knowledge communicated, as upon the scientific character of the spirit and method with which all this is done. A good college might have fewer studies and communicate less knowledge than a bad one. This institution, in the strict sense, is not a school at all. Those who visit it, go not so much to gain knowledge as to develop the intellectual faculties; not so much to gather facts, as to acquire power to expound them. They are not scholars but students—not those who learn knowledge, but those who pursue science. As the college is therefore an institution distinct from the university, it should have its own government, and, as it is distinct, in some measure, even from any of the schools of which the university consists, it should have its own method. And this is the character of the American college. It is only in this country that the true life of the college has had an unhindered development.

The European universities had their origin mostly in distinguished persons delivering lectures at particular places, on law, medicine, or theology. Thus there arose in Italy a law school at Bologna, and a medical school at Salerno; in France, a theological at Paris. Gradually these several schools, together with a faculty of sciences and arts, would be collected in one place, formed into a corporate society and thus constitute the university. What essentially constitutes the college—the fixed devotion to science as the exposition of all knowledge—the exclusive attention to strict scientific training, which is the character life of the college—was only developed in connection with these professional schools, and did not exist independently of them. It had not its own distinguishing government and method. But in this country the college has had, from the first, its distinct and separate existence. Hence, in the European universities, the system of communicating instruction almost entirely by lectures is prevalent; while, in our colleges, that living contact of teacher and pupil, involved in the Socratic method, is almost universally required. The former system has no doubt been continued, partly from custom, having been introduced before the invention of printing, but mainly, because of the preponderance of the professional interest; that is, of the faculties of law, medicine, and theology in these institutions. The teacher of law, medicine, or theology, may, with propriety, withhold his system from general publication through the press, because as his subject does not admit of science in the strict sense, his system is capable of indefinite improvement; but in the college the subjects, being chosen with a view to scientific training, the system of the teacher has no such range, and consequently should be given to the pupil in the printed book, and to be read, rather than in the spoken lecture, and to be copied. Here where science in its strict sense and its universal character is the end in view, where the excitement of the scientific spirit is the main object, the lecture system should have a subordinate place. Here where the main object is not the communication of facts, or the imparting of new ideas, but the holding of the student's mind strictly to scientific principles and processes, his time should not be spent in hearing lectures and writing out systems, but in applying himself to sciences, the attainment of a knowledge of which depends not entirely upon any peculiar system or method—here the student should have the printed text-book. He has a right to say, that if the teacher have a better system or method of that presentation of the subject which lies beyond the range of living contact with him in the exercise of recitation than any already in print, he should have it printed, and not require an unnecessary consumption of time for writing it out.

And in this respect even the Germans are beginning to acknowledge the superiority of the American College as an educating institution. Some of their great educators declare that the American method of giving the student the printed text-book for the purpose of bringing the subject synthetically before his mind, and then making the exercise of the recitation-room take the form of the dialogue, is vastly superior to the system of teaching by lectures—both because it saves time to the student, and because it tends to develop in him the powers of speech as well as the powers of thought, thus making him both a better speaker and a clearer thinker. One of them in writing on this subject, declares that no man ever understands a subject fully, until he is led frequently to express his thoughts upon it, and that this is more fully effected in American colleges than in any European institutions of education. It is from this constitution of the American college which contemplates the gathering of free representatives of science, the excitement of the spirit of science by the living contact of the master and student of science, and the laying of the necessity upon the latter of expressing his ideas and his difficulties in his own language, that the most complete scientific education proceeds.

The independent existence of the college.

The college as an institution for scientific training, has a principle so marked, so distinguishable from that of every other vocation that it has the right to a distinct place along side of all the other institutions of a nation—the right of independent existence and free growth for the fulfillment of its functions. As the church has the right of an existence independent of the state, and of a free organization for the full manifestation of her principle, namely, religion; as the family has the right to distinct existence and free development, so has the college. The state has no more right to dictate and control the internal affairs and mode of instruction of the college than she has to dictate and control those of the family and the church. She has neither the right nor the capacity to manage the strictly scientific education. It is a free vocation of life, into which she has no more right to enter than she has to enter into any of the other callings of her citizens. She should protect and foster it, as she does the family and the church, without interfering with it. If scientific training should languish, and fail to meet the wants of the community, she may and should discriminate in its behalf, and stimulate it by bounties or other favors, as she does some other branches of industry; but she must not monopolize it. She must leave it open and free to the management and competition of her intelligent citizens--to religionists and patriots—to christian and patriotic associations. As she can not allow the evil of ignorance in the community, she has the right, and it is her duty, to put the benefits of the common school within the reach of all, and, perhaps, even to compel the attendance of all her children, at a certain age, to avail themselves of these means of universal education. She has rightfully the complete control of the common school, but she has no right to extend any department of the common school into the peculiar sphere of the college; the higher department of her schools should not culminate in an attempt to give that scientific training which belongs properly to the college. But as her school is designed to prepare men for the higher as well as the lower vocations of life, its higher departments should, as far as possible, be adapted to qualify its pupils for the benefits of that vocation of scientific training which is fulfilled by the college.

But while the true life of the college should thus be permitted freely to unfold itself, it should be in sympathy with the great interests of the state, and its terms of admission should, as much as possible, be so arranged, as to enable the common school, through its higher department, to prepare students for a course of scientific training. And while the college should not, on the one hand, be merged in the state or common school, it should not, on the other, become a special or professional school. It should not undertake the management of professional education. It should never be a school for the special education of men for state-service or for the learned professions. The aspirant to a civil or professional career should, in common with other citizens, find in the college not his special training, but that universal scientific education, which is necessary in some and useful in all the vocations of life. The college must maintain the form and method, required by the universality of the spirit of science. All ulterior ends must be subordinate to the immediate object of the college in the arrangement of its curriculum. Its students must be made to feel that, though the college course be inseparable from their ultimate career in life, yet it must, for the time, be the immediate object of their pursuit;—that he who does not reside at the college for the study of science, as such, abuses, in his idea, the character of the institution, degrades it to the condition of a special school, and, consequently, can not attain its true benefits;—that he does not study, but only learns;—that he is not a student, but only a scholar.

The universal influence and practical tendency of the American college.

Let us not fear to practice this, the true theory of the college. Let us not fear that if limited to this its distinctive life, it will have a frail being, and fail to make itself felt, in this practical and progressive age and nation. This peculiar and grand characteristic of the college is not inconsistent with the most diffusive spirit and the greatest practical power. We all believe that science will eventually be universal. As it is present in the very beginning of human activity, so it will, with increasing development and power, accompany it to its end. Its perfection will be commensurate with the number of persons in whom it is consciously found; and its greatest glory will be manifest only when its spirit fills, cultivates, and adorns every member of the human family. But as it is only by first cultivating individuals that true science can reach the masses; so it is only by the scientific training of the few that the college can diffuse the spirit, and extend the benefits of science to the many. Borne by this character of science, the college is diffusive of the spirit of humanity as well as of science—is an institution for the cultivation of universal humanity just because it is a teacher of strict science. This arises from the universality of the sciences taught in the college. Extending equally to all spheres of natural and spiritual truth—to the whole nature of man, the physical, the esthetic, the ethical, and the religious,—collegiate education excites an enthusiasm for all these interests. No class of men are better prepared for the instructions and exercises demanded by a true physical education, by the development of the practical wisdom, by the regeneration of the heart through christianity than the true students of the college. No where can the gospel be preached with more effect; and this is true of every great practical interest. No class of citizens, for instance, manifested more readiness and efficiency in the late civil war than the members of our colleges. Though the college prosecutes its immediate object, it knows that men are not *men* without complete citizenship and true humanity, and that it can flourish and bear its best fruit only when the attainment of its immediate object —the cultivation of science—is held to be inseparable from its ultimate end— the diffusion of a true and universal humanity—the highest civilization of men in society, and the ennobling of the entire race of man on earth. The college makes science its immediate object, because this becomes the best means for the attainment of the higher ultimate end, namely, universal enlightenment and happiness.

Instruction which has not a practical tendency, as its last result, is defective; but it is not the scientific method of the college but the reverse order of this method—putting the ultimate in the place of the immediate end—which has this character. That great man, Lord Bacon, by whose method of science the great practical power of modern times has been developed, says: "It is an error of special note, that the industry bestowed in experiments hath presently, upon the first access unto business by too forward and unseasonable desire, seized upon some designed operation; I mean sought after *fructifera non lucifera*, experiments of use and not experiments of light and discovery; not imitating the divine method, which created the first day *light* only, and allowed it one entire day producing no *material work the same day*, descended to their creation the days following." Having spoken, in another place, of the tendency of men to enter upon the pursuit of knowledge for "lucre and profession," and at the same time of the importance of a union of thought and action, he says: "How be it, I do not mean, when I speak of use and action, that end before mentioned of the applying of knowledge to lucre and profession, for I am not ignorant how much that diverteth and interrupteth the prosecution of knowledge. * * * Neither is my meaning, as was spoken of Socrates, to call philosophy down from heaven to converse with men on the earth; that is, to leave natural philosophy aside, and apply knowledge only to manners and policy. But as both heaven and earth do contribute to the use and benefit of man, so the end ought to be from both philosophies, to separate and reject vain speculations and whatever is empty and void, and preserve and augment whatever is solid and fruitful."

That such is the tendency of colleges, is evident from the fact that they exist only among the freer and more progressive nations. Only those nations who could elevate themselves to the heights of the spirit, and apprehend, in some measure, the true idea of the vocation of man in society—who could so far transcend all despotism of church and state as to accord to the individual a free sphere of self-activity—have fostered such institutions. Among others they could not exist; for without this freedom, science will perish, and its name will be given to some fixed frame-work of the mere logical understanding or some variable dream of a lawless mysticism—to some empty form or secret doctrine—for the enslavement of men. Among the free citizens of Greece, and in the intercourse of Socrates and his pupils, we find the incipiency of such institutions. But their true and full life had its beginning in Judea, where, from the living contact of Jesus and his disciples, came not only the spiritual regeneration, but the scientific development of the christian age. It is among the nations emancipated by the free spirit of christianity, and especially since that great era of the freedom of thought, the reformation of the sixteenth century, that these institutions have had their true planting and growth.

It is true, that it is difficult to preserve the true life of the college, and to keep it within its proper sphere, and if it be true, as there is much reason to believe it is, that colleges send out their greatest men among the graduates of their earlier history, it is because during that period their life is preserved in its purity and within its proper limits. And it is just as important to limit the number of teachers and the amount of endowment, as it is to afford the proper number and amount to these institutions,—just as important to prevent them from transcending as from falling below their proper sphere. But wherever and whenever these institutions have been thus conducted, they have had a real and close connection with all the great movements and improvements of society. Such in the beginning of the sixteenth century, was the spirit of the university of Wittenberg, and it was there that the holy fire of religious and civil freedom which still animates and agitates the nations of christendom, was first fully kindled. Such in the beginning of the last century, was the character of the university at Halle. And it was the great source of the improvements in the church and state, which have since been realized. From it went forth the idea and the spirit which have revolutionized the methods of theology, and revived religion in the churches. From it proceeded the first true and fruitful ideas on international law; from it proceeded that liberal spirit—that spirit of toleration which is bringing christians of every name into union and coöperation; and from it proceeded that humanizing tendency which has contributed so much to the establishment of the rights of nations and the amelioration of the condition of man. Such, in the beginning of the present century, was the spirit of the university of Berlin, whence came that revivification of the German nation—that enthusiasm for freedom and independence which will soon make the Germans great in action as they have long been great in idea. Newton, Locke, Schiller, Kaut, Fichte, Schelling, Hegel, Schliermacher, nearly all the men whose names are inseparable from the greatest movements of thought and action were either professors in such institutions or in friendly association with them. And the fact that a Bacon in England, a Leibnitz in Germany, were not in sympathy with the universities of their country and age, is accounted for by this other fact, that these institutions had—those of the former in the sixteenth and those of the latter in the seventeenth century—lost the true character of the college, and had mistaken the slavish mechanism of a dead scholasticism for the free spirit of living science. And it is by the labors of such men as Bacon and Leibnitz, that the true spirit of science and the true theory of the college have been revived in the higher institutions of learning.

The agency of these institutions, though often imperceptible, reaches to the very extremities of society. Like the hidden forces of nature, they often produce their greatest results where men do not recognize their influence; and like them their power is known, not so much by their own, as by the qualities and movements of other agents. Their influence is found not so much in the science diffused by them as in the effect of that science—not so much in the scientific projector as in the intelligent operative. If our forefathers planted on this continent a civilization which has raised up better workmen, more intelligent artisans, more sagacious mechanics, more skillful inventors, more enterprising merchants, and a nation that more universally reads and thinks than any other in the world, it must not be forgotten that they began that civilization by planting the college before they originated any other institution of education. The philosophy of the circulation of influence in society, would teach that, in this case, its course is from the top downward, and not from the bottom upward. The historical fact is, that the college has produced the common school, and not the common school the college—that the scientific training of the college has produced the effective teaching and practice of the people. But there is a reciprocal influence between the higher and the lower institutions; they mutually supply each other's wants. There is a close connection between living science and common sense. The true student is more like the real business man than he is like the mere scholar. There may be uneducated scholars, but no true student or true business-man is uneducated. A mere scholar may, but a true student and a really successful man of business can not be destitute of the spirit of science. There is no antagonism between true science and practical life. The mere scholar may be an unpractical man, but the true student becomes the most systematic business-man. And there is no more antagonism between our higher and lower institutions of education when in their proper and healthful action, than there is between the tree and its fruits. "Common schools are the fruits which drop from the boughs of our colleges"; and the best colleges will produce the best common schools.

We may learn from this theory of the college that all its enduring reputation depends upon the character of its graduates. The foremost representatives and the most striking illustrations of the excellences or defects of any college are its alumni. In their character and activity its power or weakness will be first and most clearly seen. A good college can not fail, in due time, to have good alumni; for such a college will be sought by good students. An institution which has in it the living spirit of science, will gradually attract to its halls the ruling minds, which are found among the young in all the different communities of the land. The youth, who have the greatest scientific capacity and the strongest desires after scientific development, will seek, and soon or late, discover the character of such an institution. Every additional alumnus of scientific power will be increased evidence of this character in the college. The true reputation and growth of the college will, therefore, be necessarily, gradual. The increase in the number of true students will depend, in a great measure, upon the impression, for scientific spirit, which its alumni shall make in the church and the state. If, in their various callings, they wield the power which science gives, and show themselves to be workmen that need not be ashamed, multitudes of capacious and studious minds will, eventually, seek the institution in which they received their scientific training.

We may learn also from this theory of the college, that it is an institution of great power and importance. The relative position of any state or church will be, very much in proportion to the number and prosperity of its colleges. No state or church can better promote its own ultimate interests than by fostering these institutions and keeping them, as much as possible, in sympathy with it, and under its influence. The state should encourage its patriotic and public spirited citizens, and the church its pious and intelligent members to found such institutions, and labor for their efficiency and prosperity.

We may learn finally from this theory of the college, that, while all should sustain it, the rich should contribute mainly to its complete endowment. It has a right, as it benefits all, to look for support from all in the church and the state; but she has the nearest and the strongest claims upon the wealthy. For they, more than any other class, reap the immediate benefits of the diffusion of science, partly in their own persons, but mainly in the improvements which are produced by it, in the general character and activity of society. It is for the extensive and enterprising agriculturist, manufacturer, and commercialist, that the diffusion of the spirit of science, provides the largest and most fruitful fields of operation and profit. While all drink from the streams of this fructifying influence, the rich are nearer the fountain than others, and should consequently contribute more, not only because of their greater ability, but because of their greater benefits. And it is to the enlightened minds and enlarged hearts, especially, of the enterprising business men of every community, that colleges must mainly look for their complete endowment. In proportion as the true theory and tendency of the college are generally understood, its claims will be felt by the intelligent and wealthy members of society. And I am convinced that when once this subject is fully brought before the minds of such men, their magnanimous hearts will suggest munificent donations.

Editorial Department.

The response of the teachers of the State to our inquiry of last month, has been prompt and satisfactory. *Over five hundred subscribers,* received in the month of August, tell us that the Monthly is to be sustained in its advanced position. We gratefully accept the response and shall confidently *go forward.* We shall strive not only to maintain the present character of the Monthly, but greatly to increase its practical value and usefulness.

The institutes are doing nobly, and now if the opening schools in the cities and towns will send up their clubs, the coveted and needed four thousand subscribers will soon be reached. Superintendents and examiners will, we trust, join in the good work and give it triumphant success. The books are open for September's record! What shall it be?

PROCEEDINGS OF THE DAYTON MEETING.

We have increased our space this month to forty-eight pages, and have devoted nearly all of it to the proceedings of the State Teachers' Association. This has been done in accordance with an arrangement made with the Executive Committee. We have also printed the proceedings in a separate pamphlet—limiting the edition to one hundred copies. The memoir of Mr. Edwards, which is received too late for this number, will appear next month, and will also be included in the pamphlet.

The practice of printing the proceedings of the Association entire in a single number of the Monthly, is a good one. It makes, it is true, a somewhat heavy number, but the want of variety is more than made good by the fact that the views and recommendations presented are those of a body composed of the leading educators of the State, and largely influential in determining the scope and character of our educational system. Moreover, the discussions of such a body are intrinsically of great practical value, and should not only be brought within reach of every teacher and friend of education, but should be presented in a form convenient for future reference and use.

The National Associations.—We have only space this month to say that the meetings of these bodies were deeply interesting. We have never listened to educational discussions more pointed, practical and able, and the action taken was generally wise and salutary. We believe that no previous meetings will result in greater good to the cause of education throughout the country. The time and place of the meetings were wisely selected. The weather was delightful, and the friends of public education in the South heartily welcomed the encouragement and assistance of the educators of the country. The influence of the meetings was felt at every step of their progress. Next month we shall try to sketch their action and spirit.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

The three National Educational Associations held their annual meetings in Nashville, Tenn., the third week of August,—the National Superintendents' Association meeting on Monday, Aug. 17th, the National Normal Association, Aug. 18th, and the National Teachers' Association, Aug. 19th and 20th.

Without attempting a formal report of the proceedings, we give below such a summary as presents the spirit and more important action of each body:

NATIONAL SUPERINTENDENTS' ASSOCIATION.

This Association, composed of State and City School Superintendents, met in the Hall of the House of Representatives at 10 o'clock A.M.—President E. E. White, of Ohio, in the chair. The number of delegates present was larger than at either of the two previous meetings, and the proceedings were deeply interesting.

At the opening of the meeting, the President gave a brief history of the Association, alluding to its organization, the important results already secured by it, and the great work yet to be accomplished. The object of the discussions was to present the experience of the country in school organization and management, with a view of reaching practical conclusions.

School Funds.

The first topic considered was thus stated: "School Funds—how best raised, by State or local taxation, how apportioned, how disbursed." The discussion was introduced by an able paper by Gen. John Eaton, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Tennessee. He urged that school taxes should be levied in part by the State and in part by the local school authorities. The subject was discussed by Dr. J. M. Gregory, of Illinois, Dr. L. Van Bokkelen, of Maryland, D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts, E. E. White and W. E. Crosby, of Ohio, J. M. Olcott, of Indiana, and Rev. D. J. Robinson, of Tennessee. The only material difference in the views expressed related to the relative amount of funds to be raised respectively by State and local taxation. Drs. Gregory and Van Bokkelen favored State taxation as the chief reliance. Others urged that while a large State tax was necessary in organizing a school system, local taxation should ultimately provide the *larger* portion, say two-thirds, of school moneys. The State funds should be large enough to equalize taxation, and should be so apportioned and disbursed as to encourage and secure local taxation.

Senator Bossom, the framer of the present school law of Tennessee, spoke by invitation, and eloquently urged the duty of the State to establish and maintain an efficient system of universal education.

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the property of the State should educate the children of the State.

Resolved, That to secure a certain annual income for a sufficient number of months, a tax should be levied upon all property of the State, and equitably distributed so as to give each child equal educational privileges.

Resolved, That a local tax should be levied to continue the schools in efficient operation for at least eight months each year.

School Supervision.

The discussion of this subject was introduced by J. W. Bulkley, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Brooklyn, N. Y. He held that efficient supervision, both State and local, is essential to the success of a public school system, and that efficient supervision is only to be secured through officers specially qualified for their work. The directing head should be an intelligent, live teacher, with an earnest love for his work.

The subject was further discussed by Mr. Olcott, of Indiana, Messrs. Eaton, Graves, and McDowell, of Tennessee, Mr. Crosby, of Ohio, and Mr. Bulkley, of New York. All admitted the necessity of supervision, and county supervision was urged as an indispensable element of an efficient supervisory system, but there was some difference of opinion respecting the manner in which superintendents should be chosen. Mr. Olcott held that State and county superintendents should be chosen directly by the people and city superintendents by the board of education, and that the term of office should be from three to five years. The system of annual elections caused frequent changes and otherwise lessened the efficiency of the system. Others urged that the office of county superintendent should be removed from the control of the political caucus, and, to this end, the superintendent should be chosen by the county commissioners or by the local boards of education—the people thus indirectly controlling the election. Mr. Crosby believed that in organizing a school system where public sentiment is indifferent, county superintendents might be appointed by the State Superintendent, but soon their election should be left to the people or to their immediate representatives.

The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That in the opinion of the committee, state, county, and city superintendents were indispensable to any system of public instruction.

Resolved, That the state superintendent should be elected by the people, or by joint ballot of the Legislature; that the county superintendent should be elected by the people, through the county board of commissioners or supervisors, or by the local boards of education, in convention assembled; that the city superintendents should be chosen by the people through the board of education.

Dr. Van Bokkelen, of Maryland, who was opposed to the second resolution, requested the Association to reconsider its action, urging that its position would be prejudicial to the organization of school systems in the South. The chair believed that the resolution embodied the experience of the Northern States, but where intelligent public coöperation is wanting, it may be necessary to organize a school system *downwards*. The vote was reconsidered, and only the first resolution adopted.

The Township System.

The next topic considered was, "School District Organization—Territorial unit, school officers, etc." The discussion was opened by D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts, who made a concise and clear statement of the two systems now found in his State—the sub-district system, and the town or township system which is rapidly supplanting the sub-district system. The old plan of dividing a town into sub-districts and giving to each a committee to manage its school interests, had not worked well. Poor districts had poor schools. The town (township) system was eminently successful.

Mr. White, of Ohio, stated that the experience of Massachusetts was the experience of all of the Western States which had been so unfortunate as to adopt the sub-district system. It is a source of weakness and failure everywhere.

The following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the township or civil district is the true unit of school organization, and should constitute a single district, with a board of school officers elected by the voters of the entire district, and empowered to levy taxes for school purposes, erect school houses, employ teachers, and otherwise take the entire local control and management of the schools.

President's Address.

At the evening session the President delivered an address on "The Family, the Community, and the State in Education." He showed that the duty of educating the child rests primarily on the parents; secondarily, on the community in which the child is born; and, preëminently, on the State of which it is to be a citizen. "The property of the State is under mortgage to provide an education for every child born into its citizenship." He next showed how these three agencies are to be conjoined in the work of education, thus developing the true idea of a public school system.

Closing Business.

The Association met at 9 o'clock on Tuesday morning, and spent an hour in the transaction of business. The following officers for the ensuing year were chosen:

President—J. W. Bulkley, New York.

Vice Presidents—E. E. White, Ohio; C. E. Lawrence, Tennessee; and T. W. Conway, Louisiana.

Secretary—L. Van Bokkelen, Maryland.

Treasurer—J. M. Olcott, Indiana.

President White, retiring from the chair, introduced his successor who, in a few appropriate words, thanked the Association for the honor conferred on him; and the exercises closed to give place to the

NATIONAL NORMAL ASSOCIATION.

This body was called to order at 10 o'clock A.M., by the President, D. B. Hagar, Principal of the State Normal School at Salem, Mass. W. E. Crosby, of Ohio, was elected Secretary *pro tem.*, and a few minutes were devoted to the appointment of committees, the enrolling of members, and the transaction of other introductory business.

Normal Schools.

The first topic considered was stated as follows:

"*Resolved*, That State Normal Schools for the education of teachers are essential to the efficient operation of public instruction."

The discussion was opened by Dr. Van Bokkelen, of Maryland, who supported the resolution in an able argument based on the usages of the other learned professions. He was followed by Prof. Ogden, of Tennessee, who made a capital speech, Mr. Olcott, of Indiana, Dr. Gregory, of Illinois, and Pres. Graves and Rev. Mr. Sade, of Tennessee. All the speakers advocated normal schools, but Dr. Gregory urged that they should be supplemented by other normal agencies. The resolution was adopted unanimously.

Model Schools.

The next topic discussed was, "The Usefulness of Model Schools in connection with Normal Schools, and the mode of conducting them."

Mr. Bulkley, of New York, opened the discussion by giving the characteristics of a model school and an idea of model teaching. He was followed by Mr. White, of Ohio, who held the ends of normal school instruction to be: 1. A *teaching* knowledge of the several branches of study. 2. A knowledge of the *principles* of teaching. 3. A knowledge of methods of teaching. 4. Practical skill in the use of methods. 5. An acquaintance with the history of educational experiment and progress. The fourth end, "practical skill," may be acquired by actual practice in teaching normal classes, and in a practice or model school. His faith in the usefulness of practice schools had been somewhat weakened by the experiments he had seen, but he still believed actual practice to be an important element of normal training. He said he had little confidence in detailed methods to be mechanically copied, and less in mere practice. The normal pupil must be taught the *principles* that underlie his methods.

The discussion was continued by Prof. Newell, of Maryland, who believed the school of practice to be the most important department of a normal school; Prof. Mallon, of Georgia, Messrs. Olcott and Bell, of Indiana, Prof. Ogden, of Tennessee, and President Hagar who described the practice that prevails in the State Normal Schools of Massachusetts.

At the close of the discussion the following resolution introduced by Mr. Olcott, was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Model School, including a school of observation and a school of practice, is an important if not an essential element of a normal school.

Normal Instruction in Geography.

The next topic was, "Normal Instruction in Geography," and the discussion was opened by Mr. Crosby, of Ohio, who sketched a natural method of teaching the subject. The child should be first taught those things it can best comprehend. He must gain a good idea of the component parts of the earth before it attempts to grasp the whole earth. He was followed by Dr. Van Bokkelen who denounced the attempt to cram the minds of children with a vast quantity of dry statistics and useless details, while real geography remains untaught. He advocated the teaching of physical geography as the foundation of political geography.

Mr. White, being called on, stated the principles which, in his judgment, are embodied in a true course of geographical instruction. He divided the course into three steps or grades—primary, intermediate, and advanced—and described briefly the matter and method of teaching in each.

The subject was also discussed by Messrs. McKinney, Bancroft, and Robinson, of Tennessee. The views expressed were quite diverse, and no action was taken on the subject.

Text-Books.

The evening session was devoted to the subject of "Text-Books ", which was introduced by a paper admirably written by Prof. M. A. Newell, Principal of the State Normal School of Maryland. He mentioned that there is nothing that more effectually retards the professional advancement of teachers than the unprofessional character of the school books in common use. They are generally written by the wrong persons, and from the wrong point of view. He condemned in strong terms the *scientific* manuals which are written for *primary* arithmetics and *primary* grammars. They embody a false method of teaching.

The paper elicited a very spirited discussion which was participated in by Messrs. Barnard and Olcott, of Indiana, Mr. White, of Ohio, Mr. Rolfe of Illinois, Gen. Eaton, of Tennessee, Dr. Lee, of New York, and Dr. Van Bokkelen. Mr. Rolfe said emphatically, "It won't do for inefficient teachers to take refuge behind their text-books. Every botch is in the habit of blaming his tools. The poorest text-books are better than the use made of them, and the best books much better than the best use made of them." The sentiment was applauded.

Closing Business.

The following officers were chosen:

President—M. A. Newell, Maryland.

Vice Presidents—John Ogden, Tennessee; J. M. Olcott, Indiana; J. W. Bulkley, New York, and W. M. Colby, Arkansas.

Secretary—A. S. Barber, District of Columbia.

Treasurer—E. C. Hewett, Illinois.

President Hagar, before yielding to his successor, said he had intended to present at this meeting a somewhat elaborate paper on the history and workings of normal schools, but he had been unable to prepare it. He gave a brief account of the Normal Schools of Massachusetts, and referred with pride to their triumphant success.

On motion, he was requested to prepare the paper for publication with the minutes, and Prof. Phelps, of Minnesota, was also requested to furnish the secretary with a copy of his expected paper on the organization and grading of normal schools.

The Association adjourned.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

This body, much the largest of the National Associations, convened Wednesday morning at 10 o'clock—President J. M. Gregory, of Illinois, in the chair. The exercises were opened by a few appropriate words by the President, music by the Fisk University Choir, and prayer by Dr. Bunting.

Introductory Addresses.

Chancellor Lindsley, of the University of Nashville, in a brief but well written address, introduced Ex-Gov. Neill S. Brown, who delivered the address of welcome. He paid a high compliment to teachers, placing them in the front rank of reformers. He believed that the contrast between different nations and peoples was largely due to a difference in education. An ignorant nation makes no progress—it builds no cities; no steamers ply its rivers; no ships cover its seas. In the busy hive of mankind its voice is silent. In an educated nation there are life, thrift, and enterprise. In this country education is imperative. Intelligence and virtue are the life of free government.

The address was happily and eloquently responded to by President Gregory, who accepted the welcome in the spirit it was tendered. In alluding to the teachers's mission, he said: "Other men write history: *the teacher makes it.*"

Ex-Gov. H. S. Foote, of Mississippi, being called out by the chair, addressed the Association in a very happy manner. In the course of his remarks, he alluded to Allison's statement that education increases crime, and said that such a result, if true, must be due to the neglect of the heart. Education should plant in the soul those virtues that ennoble human existence. Our schools should inculcate love of country and free institutions, genuine philanthropy, concord, benevolence, universal brotherhood. Our government rests on two pillars, intelligence and virtue—both are essential. He was in favor of universal education without regard to lineage, race, or sect. Wherever mind is found, there the blessings of education should reach.

The chair next introduced Dr. W. H. McGuffey, of the University of Virginia, a veteran teacher of nearly fifty years' experience, and a celebrated author. His address was devoted almost exclusively to professional topics, and was full of ripe thoughts and practical wisdom. We were specially pleased with his views on primary teaching and the felicitous illustration of true teaching witnessed in a primitive log school-house in Ohio.

These introductory addresses, as well as the succeeding exercises, were interspersed with excellent music by the colored choir connected with Fisk University. Several of the pieces elicited hearty applause.

Classical Studies.

The first paper presented to the Association was the report of a committee appointed at the Indianapolis meeting, to consider the paper by Prof. Atkinson on "The Place of the Classical Studies in an American System of Education." The report was read by Dr. I. W. Andrews, President of Marietta College, Ohio, and was entitled "The Study of Classics in our Colleges. It was an able, if not an unanswerable, defense of classical training, not as an exclusive but as an important element of a liberal education. In the American college only from one-fourth to one-third of the student's time is devoted to Latin and Greek. Scientific studies rightly have an important place. Neither of the great classes of studies should be excluded or neglected. The report was adopted without discussion.

True Idea of a College.

Chancellor Chadbourne, of the University of Wisconsin, read an elaborate paper on "The True Idea of a College." He believed that the true function of the college is to furnish the highest type of education—an education worthy to be sought for its own sake—an education that does not so much teach people how to make a living as it enables them to improve and make the most of a living. The young person should be prepared to make a living before he goes to college. The common school and the industrial college should meet the demands of business. The college stands above these—is a place where the noblest type of manhood receives the highest possible culture and polish.

The reading of the paper was followed by a brief discussion. Chancellor Lindsley said that in America there was no use for the college. What we want is a university—a place where the whole range of human knowledge is taught—where a person may learn any thing or every thing in any way, wrong end foremost, upside down, or inside out.

Mr. White, of Ohio, believed that the common school and the college should alike seek the fullest possible development of man as man. The highest ideal of manhood, intellectually, morally, and physically, is the first and true end of all general education. The best part of human life lies outside of one's daily toil. The farmer should be broader and deeper than his furrow, and the engineer should be swifter than his engine. The first aim of education is manhood; the subordinate end the getting of a living—and he believed that that training which best secures the first end will also best secure the second. The one practical result of education is thought, soul-power.

Prof. Graves believed there was harmony between all schools that help make up the curriculum of education.

President Andrews, of Ohio, said that there are two kinds of education, general and special. The industrial college has for its function special education, and he did not see why the author of the paper placed it *between* the common school and the college. Should not special education follow general education?

On motion of Dr. Van Bokkelen, a committee was appointed to report resolutions on the subject. The chair appointed Messrs. Chadbourne, Graves, Andrews, Lindsley, and White, who submitted the following report, which was unanimously adopted:

Your committee are well aware that no scheme of study can now be presented that will command the assent of all prominent educators in the country. They venture to present the following statements, as giving their own views as to the proper sphere of prominent institutions as now organized in this country, what their aim should be, and their relations to each other:

1. That our schemes of education in all institutions, excepting those that are distinctly professional, should be such as to secure for the student both knowledge and mental discipline.
2. That moral training and mental culture are essential endowments in the preparation for any employment in life, and that all attempts of special study of sciences without these must fail to secure the best result, even in the sciences selected.
3. That the public schools should embrace such a range of studies as to fit students for college, so that no other preparatory school should be needed.
4. That the simple college, according to the true American usage of that

term, is the highest institution for general culture in distinction from professional schools.

5. That the university, in the American meaning of the word, is a combination of colleges, including the simple college and such other scientific and professional schools as the State is bound to provide for its citizens.

P. A. CHADBOURNE, I. W. ANDREWS,
E. E. WHITE, J. B. LINDSLEY,
Z. C. GRAVES.

School Hygiene.

A practical and important paper on "School Hygiene" was read by Dr. Lee, delegate from the University Convocation of New York. He urged that children should not be confined more than one hour at a time, and not to exceed four hours a day. Pure air, wholesome food, and proper exercise will largely remove the apparent evil effects of over study. It is not so much study as the condition of study that ruins health.

The subject was discussed by Mr. Rolfe, of Illinois, Dr. Van Bokkelen, and Mr. Hagar.

Mr. Rolfe believed that the daily sessions of our schools are much too long. Experiment has demonstrated that small children will make as much progress by attending school three hours a day as they now do in six hours.

Dr. Van Bokkelen said this subject was thoroughly discussed at the Indianapolis meeting, and that it was decided that, as a general rule, the schools ought not to be in session over four hours each day, for five days each week, and for about ten months each year.

Mr. Hagar, being called on by the chair, said that the school hours in the normal schools of Massachusetts are limited to five hours each day, of which there is not more than one hour given entirely to study. The rest of the time is filled up with gymnastic exercises and recitations. The great thing is to have wise teachers, who can conduct school work in the right way. He found from experience that children properly taught will feel more weary during vacation than during the period of the session. He thought no general rule could be laid down. Many children in our cities were better off at school than at home, and it was physically an advantage for them to remain there six hours a day. He agreed with Dr. Lee that it was the *condition* of school study rather than study itself that injures children. The mere shortening the time of study will not answer; teachers must make a wiser use of it. Most of the ill health observed in schools was due to bad food, improper care, and ill ventilated sleeping-rooms at home.

President's Address.

Wednesday evening, President Gregory delivered an eloquent and able address on "Industrial Education." He said that two of the grandest words now in use are *Education* and *Industry*—the one imparting the grandest conceptions of an unfolded manhood, and the other including the most magnificent triumphs of human skill. The central idea of the address was, that the industrial pursuits of life—human destiny—should be the ruling end of education—a doctrine in antagonism with the general opinion of educators. Inasmuch as there is no education that gives power to the brain, that is not practical, he would not ignore the claims of discipline and knowledge—but these are means to an end. An industrial college should furnish a liberal education under the influence and guidance of industry.

The address was referred to a special committee consisting of Messrs. Wells, Newell, Hagar, North, and Lindsley.

Gen. Howard's Address.

The chair announced General Howard, who made an earnest plea in behalf of the millions at the South who are hungering for knowledge. He made a brief statement of the educational work of the Freedmen's Bureau. The results attained in three years are wonderful. There are now 1,744 teachers in the Bureau schools, and the number of schools of all kinds is 3,084, of which 1,000 are sustained by the colored people themselves. The average daily attendance is over 58,000 pupils, of which over 4,000 are in the higher branches. In the State of North Carolina alone there are upwards of 20,000 pupils. Normal schools were greatly needed, and no less than ten or twelve had already been put in operation. To provide all the children at the South, black and white, with schooling was a great task, and the continued assistance of the benevolent and philanthropic was needed.

A resolution of concurrence of the Association in the philanthropic sentiments expressed by Gen. Howard, was unanimously passed.

Normal Instruction in Colleges.

The only paper presented the second day was an excellent one by Prof. North, of Hamilton College, N. Y., on "Normal Instruction in Colleges." He took the position that as a large per centage of graduates engage in the work of teaching, either as a permanent or a temporary employment, some provision should be made in the college curriculum for instruction in the history and philosophy of education, and in the best methods of imparting knowledge. It was mentioned as a singular inconsistency that most of the Northern States had made complete provision for the support of normal schools and institutes in which common-school teachers are instructed, but that no normal instruction is provided for those who are to have the charge of academies and high schools, and thus become teachers of teachers. President Hill, of Harvard College, has proposed a post-graduate course of normal instruction, to occupy one or two years. Such a course would be well, if graduates could be induced to take it. A college graduate can always find work to do as a teacher, and will choose to take his chance of success without waiting for further discipline in a normal school. Among the advantages to be gained by normal instruction in college would be its recognition of the intrinsic dignity and importance of the teacher's profession. Graduates would be brought to realize that successful teaching requires patience in the details of daily drill, absolute self-control, and skill in the art of imparting knowledge. Many earnest but unpracticed teachers would be saved from humiliating mistakes and failures. Another benefit would be the strengthening of the bond of sympathy and brotherhood that unites the college, the academy, and the common school.

Notwithstanding the paper did not propose normal instruction in colleges as a substitute for normal schools, the discussion which followed was largely a canvass of the relative merits of colleges and normal schools as institutions to train teachers. Supt. Smith, of Kentucky, and Dr. Van Bokkelen both took the position that no instituton could supersede the normal school. The latter speaker was very emphatic in his strictures on colleges as places to educate teachers. Mr. Rolfe, of Illinois, Dr. Andrews and Mr. Crosby, of Ohio, Mr. Olcott, of Indiana, and Prof. Bancroft, of Tennessee, replied to Dr. Van Bokkelen, defending college graduates as teachers, but urging the importance of normal schools. Many of the best teachers in the country are college graduates.

Prof. Richards, of Washington, said that a majority of the teachers in our academies, seminaries, and high schools come from the colleges, where they are educated without any reference to their being teachers. What is proposed is to add normal instruction to the college course for the benefit of those who intend to become teachers.

President Gregory heartily indorsed the recommendation contained in the paper. He said the question was whether colleges could be useful in the particular feature of instructing their *alumni* with a view of teaching, and not whether they should supersede normal schools, the necessity and usefulness of which all were ready to acknowledge.

The subject was further discussed by Dr. Robinson and Gen. Eaton, of Tennessee, when Mr. White submitted the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That as means for providing our schools with competent teachers six classes of agencies are requisite: 1. Normal schools of a high grade. 2. Normal departments, normal classes, or normal instruction, in our colleges and other institutions of learning. 3. Normal institutes continuing from four to six weeks, and doing the work of brief normal schools. 4. Teachers' institutes. 5. Teachers' associations and meetings. 6. Educational periodicals and works.

Higher Education of Women.

Thursday afternoon was chiefly devoted to a discussion on "The Contrast between the Higher Education of Men and Women," which narrowed to the question of the co-education of men and women in colleges and other higher institutions. Pres. Graves, Judge Mills, Judge Patterson, and Dr. Robinson, all of Tennessee, and Mr. Rolfe, of Illinois, favored the admission of women to our colleges. Chancellor Chadbourne, of Wisconsin, and Prof. Prettyman, of Kentucky, were not in favor of such admission. The former urged equal educational advantages for women, but in separate colleges.

President Gregory said the question of admitting women to the colleges now established ought not to be confounded with the question whether they were entitled to the same degree of educational culture as that given to men. He would say that if the country could afford to give a high education to but one of the sexes, he would give that high education to woman, because that education in the mind of woman is diffusive. He often had seen educated men sending their children forth to the world much more ignorant than themselves, but he had yet to see an educated mother send forth her children to mix with the world without a thorough education. He questioned the beneficial results to be gathered from mixed colleges. He was of the opinion that the highest type and grandest development of woman could not be attained without institutions of learning gotten up with especial reference to her interest.

National Department of Education.

Senator Bosson gave a few brief statements relative to the cause of education in Tennessee, after which Prof. Richards, of

Washington, D. C., gave an interesting account of the work and progress of the new Department of Education in Washington. He said a new system had to be devised. Whatever information is obtained is given voluntarily by the friends of education all over the country—consequently they had to labor under great difficulties, but, nevertheless, a vast amount of work has been done, and, in a short time, some very valuable documents will be sent out. The first regular report of the department is finished, and would be ready for distribution at a very early day.

Mr. White offered the following resolution which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That this Association approves of the action of Congress in organizing a National Department of Education, and the continuance and liberal support of such department is most earnestly recommended.

Closing Business.

Mr. White, of Ohio, invited the Association to meet next year at Columbus, and gave assurance of a hearty Buckeye welcome. Gen. Eaton referred to the good results to flow from holding the present meeting in Tennessee, and expressed the hope that the next meeting would be held in New Orleans. No action was taken on the subject.

The officers chosen for the ensuing year, are as follows:

President—Dr. L. Van Bokkelen, of Maryland.

Vice Presidents—J. W. Bulkley, New York; D. B. Hagar, Massachusetts; I. W. Andrews, Ohio; J. M. Gregory, Illinois; John Eaton, Tennessee; B. Mallon, Georgia; W. M. Colby, Arkansas; J. M. Olcott, Indiana; D. F. Wells, Iowa; J. W. Dodd, Kentucky; C. W. Clarke, Mississippi.

Secretary—W. E. Crosby, Ohio.

Treasurer—A. L. Barber, Washington, D. C.

Counselors—E. L. Wells, Illinois; John Ogden, Tennessee; W. H. McGuffey, Virginia; Thomas Smith, Arkansas; H. H. Tucker, Georgia; Edward North, New York; W. A. Bell, Indiana; Z. Richards, District of Columbia; E. E. White, Ohio; H. R. Pease, Mississippi; S. Prettyman, Kentucky; W. R. Creary, Maryland; J. D. Philbrick, Massachusetts; J. P. Wickersham, Pennsylvania; B. G. Northrop, Connecticut; C. H. Allen, Wisconsin; A. P. Stone, Maine.

A series of appropriate resolutions was passed, and the business gave place to an intellectual hand-shaking and a parting "God bless you" from the representatives of the different States. The following gentlemen were called on by the chair, and responded in brief speeches: Z. Richards, Washington, J. M. Bulkley, New York, W. M. Colby, Arkansas, J. W. Dodd, Kentucky, E. E. White and I. W. Andrews, Ohio, B. Mallon, Georgia, W. A. Bell, Indiana, L. Van Bokkelen and Prof. Newell, Maryland, and E. L. Wells, Illinois.

President Gregory added a few appropriate parting words, the Doxology was sung, and the Association adjourned.

PRENDERGAST'S MASTERY OF LANGUAGES.—II.

It is now many years since, in a series of papers on various methods of teaching languages both ancient and modern, I alluded to Jacotot's, which, owing to the energy and unbounded faith of its promulgator, had a great vogue in its day. Its leading principle was to learn a book thoroughly by dint of constant revision (say Télémaque for French), and to refer to it as to a storehouse for every needed combination of new phrases, according to Jacotot's celebrated axiom: *Tout est dans tout.*

There is no doubt that, provided any one will have the patience to learn, and memory to retain the whole of this or of any other book in any language, there will result an almost unbounded possibility of combining the words and phrases of that book, so as to enable one to read whatever other works belong to the same order of literature, to understand much of the current conversation and join in it with considerable fluency. But how few, except under the magnetic influence of an enthusiastic worker of his own method, are capable of such drudgery!

Prendergast's method is the same in principle; but, instead of imposing on the learner the unreasonable and almost hopeless task of committing a whole book to memory, it gives only a few sentences which admit of subdivision into phrases so short that they can be learned from the teacher's lips with little or no labor. By repeated rehearsals, occurring five or six times a day, and occupying only about ten minutes each, these phrases and the whole sentence itself are almost indelibly imprinted on the memory, become part and parcel of the mind's furniture, and thus serve as a stock in trade from which, by indefinite combinations, new phrases and sentences, widely different from each other and from the original, containing the same words, but excluding all others, can be constructed at will.

In this respect, Prendergast reproduces the leading features of the Robertsonian and Ollendorf methods, which, in the hands of such scholars as Arnold in England, Spenser, Harkness, McClintock, etc., in this country, have proved so effective. The difference between him and them is, that the latter give for models a great variety of sentences which are to be merely construed, translated and imitated, not committed to memory, whereas Prendergast confines himself to fifteen or twenty sentences consisting only of about two hundred different words.

Any one who has taught according to the methods of Ollendorf, Harkness, etc., is fully prepared to admit that an almost unlimited number of sentences may be made out of a very limited stock of words arranged in judiciously framed sentences, the mastery of which secures a fluent command of language, thus saving time and labor.

Although the English language possesses 125,000 words, a well educated person seldom uses in conversation more than three or four thousand, out of which two or three hundred of the more useful and familiar may be selected for building up the model sentences. That readiness of speech in young children which seems so marvelous to those who have not studied their ways, arises entirely from the untaught skill with which they wield their scanty, but daily increasing vocabulary. It is not by mere passive listening, but by their restless and unwearied love of imitation and repetition that they unconsciously learn to interchange and combine words and phrases. Taking his cue from them, Prendergast has contrived a philosophical process, founded on logical deduction from facts ascertained by the recorded experience of those who have been most successful in acquiring an idiomatic knowledge of foreign languages. In almost every instance, the main source of their success is found to have been their learning idiomatic sentences, the words and phrases of which they transposed, interchanged, and recombined by incessant efforts of memory.

It may be rash to pronounce on the superiority of a method before it has been subjected to the rigid test of extensive and varied experimental teaching; but it certainly has this presumptive recommendation, that it resembles more closely than any other the natural method by which children unconsciously learn whatever language is habitually spoken around them, by hourly ringing changes upon a very small stock of phrases, the constant repetition of which in their hearing has fixed them in their memory. The "Mastery" differs only in substituting plan and method for chance and irregularity; instead of short, random phrases caught up at hap-hazard, it selects or manufactures for the purpose special sentences.

But a very satisfactory testimony to the potency of this method is borne by E. M. Gaillaudet of the Deaf-Mute College, Washington. He says that, after less than two weeks' study of Prendergast's German Manual, by implicitly complying with his directions, he was able to sustain conversations in German on a great variety of subjects, though he had no previous knowledge of the language.

The name which the author has given to his method "Mastery of Language," is intended to set forth its characteristic feature. No new step is to be taken, no new sentence is to be attempted, until all the preceding have been so thoroughly *mastered* as to be remembered, and brought forth in whole or in part in their original form or in new combinations instantaneously, on the spur of the moment, without effort or hesitation. On the slightest mistake, or the least sign of tripping, the whole thing must be gone over anew, until success be secured beyond all possibility of failure.

The process is wholly oral; no book is allowed lest the eye should distract the ear from the spoken words. The learner is supplied only with a list in English of the variations from model sentences, "lest the memory should be clogged with half-remembered, disconnected words." On the principle that language consists not of words but of sentences, he forbids the learning of words unless grouped into phrases.

The idiomatic phrases studiously brought into the model sentences, familiarize, from the outset, the learner with modes of thought and forms of speech previously unknown to him; whereas those that correspond with the constructions of his own tongue, not only would afford him no insight into the physiology of the foreign language, but might even betray him into the error of fancying that one tongue is but the fac simile of the other.

Only two applications of the method have yet appeared—to German and French. Selecting the latter for illustration as the more familiar of the two, to me at least, we have in the French Manual fifteen moderately long sentences, containing altogether little more than two hundred different words. These sentences have been so framed as to present whatever specialties in the mechanism of the language are in most striking contrast with the forms of the learner's native tongue. These are subdivided into five or six parts or phrases, each of which forms the text of a lesson, with from ten to twenty variations each, making altogether eighty-seven lessons and upward of eleven hundred variations, containing the words and phrases previously learned, but excluding all others.

Additional variations may and should be made out and given by the teacher; but the learner must not attempt to manufacture any for himself. By this restriction I understand that he is not to commit to memory any phrases not previously subjected to the revision of the teacher. The learner is to carry about him for frequent conning over and rehearsal, an English translation of all the variations authorized by the teacher.

All grammatical analysis is to be deferred until the conclusion of the course, when it will be found that a large stock of grammatical knowledge has been unconsciously gained, without the help of technical terms, definitions, and rules. This informal *absorption* of practical grammar is to be followed in due time by a formal course of theoretical grammar; but, for the present, "theory is to be kept in the rear of practice, never allowed to overtake or precede it." In fact, the power of correctly applying and rearranging the words and phrases of the model sentences, shows that their grammatical relations must have been noticed and understood, so that nothing remains for future study but to specify by technical terms the abstract relations that have been already mastered in the concrete.

The frequency and shortness of the exercises make it easy to repeat at each sitting all the model sentences previously learned. The more these repetitions are distributed over the day, at equal intervals, the sooner will the indispensable perfection be secured; for, as Prendergast truly observes, "memory accomplishes its work more effectually by short, but highly concentrated efforts at intervals than by prolonged application. It is a waste of time and an impediment to progress to work for an hour and try to learn six lessons at once; it is like trying to eat six meals at once by way of saving time and labor." May there not be dyspepsia of memory as well as of stomach, both from the same cause—repletion?

A short list of forms and inflections is appended to the manual, to be learned at the end of the course. This is to be followed by a systematic treatise on grammar, and by practice in reading, writing, and speaking, at the discretion of the learner.

The "Mastery" system does not profess to contain all the language, but only to lay the foundation, by thoroughly familiarizing the learner with a limited, but well selected stock of the more common and useful words and phrases and of the principal idioms, which it trains him to arrange and rearrange, so as to give him a perfect command of the language so far as the model sentences reach. On this foundation, he may afterwards erect as complete a superstructure as his taste, ability, and opportunity enable him. Prendergast recommends to select for translation easy sentences from some familiar and interesting English book, passing over the intractable sentences, or substituting for them easier, but equivalent forms. The student might lengthen short sentences or shorten long ones; change others from the affirmative form to the interrogative or negative; from passive to active, or *vice versa;* then attempt original composition.

The German Manual, constructed on the same plan, consists of eighteen model sentences subdivided into one hundred and twenty-four lessons, with six hundred and twenty variations, also involving about two hundred different words.

Now, why is it that, by the canonical and time-consecrated method of grammar and lexicon, we uniformly and disgracefully fail, in spite of several years' fair study by average students and conscientious labor by the teacher, to convey even a decent knowledge of Greek or Latin, whilst, under our very nose, little, careless urchins, without any apparatus of teachers, set lessons, lexicons, grammars, or exercise-books, by merely hearing, rehearsing and combining, in instinctive obedience to the irrepressible activity of their nature, never fail to acquire a practical, *enjoyable* knowledge of foreign tongues however complicated, provided they have the opportunity of constantly hearing them spoken?

Dufief long ago proclaimed the evil, and proposed a remedy in his "Nature Displayed", a voluminous collection of idiomatical and conversational phrases in French. So did Locke and Dumarsais, in their literal, interlineary translations, and Jacotot in his prescription of a book to be learned faithfully by heart: but Prendergast's method is far superior; it is less artificial, more in accordance with nature, and far less laborious than the former and latter of these.

Is there any reason why a similar course might not be followed for Latin and Greek? If I had encouragement, I could, even with my moderate knowledge of these languages, by means of a few sentences culled from Cæsar, Livy, Cicero, Terence, Lucian, Demosthenes, Xenophon, and Plutarch, construct manuals on the same plan. After this initiatory process, a course through Harkness's First and Second Latin and Greek books and "Prose Composition" would place the student on a par with those who had devoted years to Andrew and Stoddard, Kühner, etc. I mean no disrespect to these erudite works; I object only to the wrong use made of them. As books of reference, they are invaluable; but to be committed to memory, through thick and thin, rules, exceptions, and all, they are worse than useless; they make the learning of those beautiful tongues absolutely nauseous, to be cast aside as a nuisance as soon as ever the student feels himself emancipated from scholastic thralldom.

In addition to the German and French Manuals, Prendergast has published a hand-book, which, besides a luminous exposition of his method, contains very sound philosophy on the study of language in general, and on the place which the theory of grammar should occupy in a linguistic course. T. E. S.

THE EDUCATIONAL PERIOD—HOW SHALL IT BE MADE AVAILABLE?

In his last Annual Report, the State School Commissioner gives, as the two pressing educational wants of the State, "*an increased attendance of the youth of the State, and more rational methods of instruction.*" Let me say a few words as to the first of these wants. That the mass of the children and youth of Ohio do not avail themselves of the provision that has been made for their education, is manifest. The law provides that the public schools shall be open for at least six months each year, and all over five years of age and under twenty-one may attend them without payment of tuition. The State thus provides ninety-six months' gratuitous instruction for every youth within its limits; and in the towns and cities the provision is still larger.

But the statistics show that the average amount of instruction received is less than half that offered. Forty-five months is the average, according to the last School Report. The towns and cities show the same average as the country districts. Saying nothing now of the character of the instruction, the children and youth of the State do not get, on the average, one-half in quantity that they might get.

In the towns and cities we have many fine school-houses and many excellent teachers; but how few pupils are found in the high schools. Only a small number enter, and but a small part of these finish the course. The majority of our citizens fail to avail themselves of the choicest of the educational privileges provided for them. This is true not of the poor alone, and the ignorant; parents in good circumstances—parents who would be mortified not to be thought intelligent—take too little interest in the education of their children to send them to school. The fact is difficult to explain, but it is a fact.

How shall this evil be remedied? How shall a better attendance be secured? Legislative action has been proposed, and, so far as our public schools are concerned, such action is proper. If the law compels us to pay taxes for the support of schools, it should provide that the schools thus supported should approximately accomplish the end. One legislative remedy is a Truancy Law. This has been tried, and with great success in some States. In Springfield, Mass., eighty-seven per cent. of all the children between the ages of five and fifteen are in the public schools. This leaves but thirteen per cent. for those who attend private schools, for the sick, and for those who are engaged in some regular employment. After two years' operation of the law in that city, truancy is almost unknown. This is good. Ohio must have such a law, and she will ere long.

Another legislative remedy for the evil of non-attendance, is the distribution of the public money in proportion to the average attendance at school, and not in proportion to the number of children, as at present. Mr. Commissioner Norris makes a very strong argument in favor of such a law. Why not make the change? Ohio loses every year over a million and a half of dollars through the absence of children from schools. This amount is expended for nothing, because the pupils are not present to receive the benefits. The law proposed by Mr. Norris could hardly fail of making available a considerable portion of this money which is now wasted.

But I wish to speak of other remedies, which are not legislative but individual; not public but private. Rather, it is a single remedy—the personal influence of the teacher and of every friend of education. Let the legislation be made as perfect as possible, there will still be need of all the influence that can be brought to bear, in order to secure the best attendance.

The cause of non-attendance is mainly the indifference of parents. This is not necessarily because they have no regard for education as a means of good to their children. It may be because they are by nature easy, slow, slack. There are some people who are always behind. They rarely do anything at the right time. If they owe a debt, it is scarcely ever paid when due, though they may have the money in their pocket at the time. Those who manifest no decision or energy in regard to other things, will hardly be prompt in availing themselves of the educational privileges provided for their children. When the term opens, they are not ready; one little thing prevents the child's attendance for a few days, and then another, till it is too late to begin. The child is ashamed to go, or perhaps must lose his grade. The consequence often is, that the educational period comes to a premature end. For what is really no reason at all, the school days of a child are terminated before he is half through, perhaps before he is a quarter through his course.

The same result may be brought about in another way. The parent is indifferent, because he yields to the caprice of the child. The child dislikes a certain teacher, or a study, and so urges the parent to let him stay from school for awhile. Many parents are weak enough to let their children govern the household, instead of doing it themselves. Very many who pride themselves in their good judgment and excellent common sense will say, if my children want to study I am willing they should, but I do not believe in forcing them. Forcing them! If a child was opposed to eating good bread and meat, and wanted to live on candy, of course you would give him his way. If he was averse to wearing clothes in summer, certainly you would not force him—oh, no. How silly all this is. The parent has *duties* to perform to his child, and one of the most important is, that he should see that he has the best education possible.

Many young people fail to avail themselves of the educational advantages offered them, because they, or their parents, or both, are led to doubt the utility of any branches of knowledge except the commonest. They hear many intelligent persons, very likely some of their teachers, decry in strong terms this or that class of studies usually pursued in the more advanced schools, and in their perplexity they know not what to do. They do not wish to waste their time in studying what is of no use, and so they hesitate, and probably soon give up all farther educational work.

Now in all these cases, and other kindred ones, efforts should be put forth to induce parents to send their children to school, or keep them there. Without such efforts the educational period will be cut short in a vast number of cases. The temptations to stop studying, especially with lads, are very strong, and they will prove irresistible unless teachers and others use their personal influence to neutralize them. The teacher must not say, "It is my business to instruct thoroughly those who come to my school; it is not my business to bring them here." There is, of course, some truth in it, but he must not let it influence him too far. The machinery of our public school system is excellent, but we must not allow ourselves to be wholly controlled by machinery. If education is so great a good as we all affirm it to be, let us bring as many as possible within the reach of its good influences. For lack of a few words to the parent or the pupil himself, let not the educational period be brought to a premature termination.

Two things every teacher should remember. One is, that parents and children are liable to hear and read many things whose influence is unfavorable to all education except in the merest elements. The other is, that the teacher himself will often be tempted to speak in such terms concerning certain branches that parents and children will have their confidence in them shaken, and probably their estimate of the value of education as a whole, greatly reduced. If James Parton chooses to say that every boy who expects to devote himself to business should leave school as early as sixteen, let him say so. If Horace Greeley thinks it useless for girls to study algebra, let him think so. Teachers should utter no such nonsense. Such talk will never fill our grammar and high schools with pupils, or our State with intelligent and cultivated people.

It is unfortunate that much that is said and written has a tendency, though often not designed, to cause the young to desert from the educational army. But having this tendency it must be counteracted, if possible. Teachers and other friends of learning must insist more emphatically upon the value of learning; upon the importance of education as a whole, in its broadest and highest sense, and not merely in its beginnings; upon education gained under teachers, as distinct from that gathered by private reading in the intervals from labor. The farther the school education is carried, the greater will be the probability that evenings and odd moments will be devoted to study, and devoted successfully.

I. W. A.

Marietta College, Sept., 1868.

WM. NORRIS EDWARDS.*

BY WM. E. CROSBY, LIMA, O.

The subject of this memoir was born at Pittsfield, Mass., July 4th, 1812, and died at Troy, O., August 3d, 1867, aged fifty-five years and twenty-nine days.

He was fatherless at quite an early age. His family was poor, and could afford him but little pecuniary aid for a start in life. But the help he received was sufficient for his purposes. He worked out his education, and received the encouragement and aid of a loving mother and sister—they sewing to help in paying his schooling. And then he possessed within himself the only reliable and adequate assurances of future success—a strong will and right inclinations.

He was prepared for college at Pittsfield Academy, then under the care of Mr. Drury, who afterward became President of Rochester University. From Pittsfield Academy he entered Williams College, from which he graduated, regularly, in 1838, at the age of twenty-six.

His diploma bears the signature of Mark Hopkins, and he himself bore about in his life and deeds the impress of that great man's character and teachings. There were manifest in his conduct and character a certain strength and rugged earnestness which, though in part native to himself, must, have in some measure, been nurtured and strengthened by the example and instructions of one who was second to "no one who ever presided over a New England College."

Mr. Edwards taught some while pursuing his college course. Graduating from college he taught at Nunda and Bridgeton, in the State of New York,—in each place two years. He then began the study of theology at Auburn, designing to fit himself for the ministry. But his health failed, and after spending a year at home endeavoring to recruit, he gave up the ministry.

Another and quite different course was planned for him, and he soon after entered upon his life-work here in the West, and worked in it these many years with, as we have every reason to believe, as true and hearty a devotion as would have marked his efforts in that higher calling of the ministry.

In 1845 he began his work in the west at Vincennes, Ind., where he taught one year. From there he went to Lebanon, O., and conducted an academy two years, and thence to Dayton, where he taught a boys' academy, which held a high place in the esteem of that community.

But it is in the labors and results of the last fifteen years of his life that the friends of the public school system of Ohio are most interested. In 1852 Mr. Edwards was appointed superintendent of the schools at Troy, at a salary of $800 per annum—good wages sixteen years ago, when many of us were working at twelve dollars per month and "boarding round." He found the schools of Troy in an unorganized condition, but the community sufficiently alive to their wants to provide him with a good building, in which to begin his great work. I use these adjectives considerately. What the schools of Troy are to-day,—and I believe they rank with any in the State,—is mainly due to the skillful workmanship and untiring zeal of Mr. Edwards.

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* A paper read before the Ohio Teachers' Association, July 1, 1868.

The community itself, as an intelligent, enterprising, and moral society, is largely due to the labors of this one man,—and I feel now that I am but tamely expressing the convictions of that whole people. Now, if this be not a great thing to do, then there is no human work that deserves the name of greatness.

After fifteen years of devoted effort he died, passing from us suddenly, bereaving us all—friends, this community of workers in mind, now before me, that wide and singularly united circle of neighbors and friends, and patrons and pupils, and the State which he served so faithfully and long, and which was not least in its bereavement. The entire community of Troy paid the last sad tribute to his mortal life—and all, young and old, pupil and patron, friends and neighbors, merchants and lawyers,—*all* attended and mourned at his burial.

He had taught twenty-seven years, with but three years intermission, and to gather into one view the facts, changes, phases, and products of so long a personal devotion to education by one who became an eminent teacher to associates, pupils, and to citizens, is a task from which one might reasonably shrink. It is a blessed privilege, however, to look closely at a life characterized by good deeds in a noble calling; and it is a welcome thought to us all that the more intimately we come to know such a life, the more we find to admire and love. Even they who were enemies are not always the last to scatter flowers on the grave of a good man. They will even profess to have done him good offices when alive.

If our friend had any enemies, I have been unable to find them. Go into the neighborhood where he spent so many years, where he daily walked, where all, old and young, knew him, and you will be surprised at the unanimity of so many witnesses. Five or six years ago I met in Cincinnati a working-man, who had spent a short time at Troy. He was a stranger in that place, but brought away with him the impresssion that Mr. Edwards was idolized by an entire people. If any were disposed to reflect that one might be popular, and yet not highly estimable, I should reply that this could not be true respecting one having Mr. Edwards's temperament and manners. It is but the truth that his person was not prepossessing to the stranger. He was at times seemingly cold and distant to his neighbors and friends. A very near friend said he was sometimes hasty and impulsive. A prominent and worthy citizen of Troy told me that he had never been personally intimate with Mr. Edwards, on account of what he thought to be indifference of manner on the part of the latter, but that he had not throughout his long intercourse with him, failed to respect him highly as a teacher and as a man; and almost in the same breath that spoke of coldness and reserve in manner, he eulogized him as charitable and abounding in kindness towards all.

There was a sufficient cause for an apparent reserve or unfriendliness of manner, or even now and then slight exhibitions of ill-temper. He was never free from physical pain. He was heard to exclaim, "O for the patience to bear pain." In view of this, it is really cause for surprise that he made no enemies, nor was ever known to treat even a child cruelly. It is not seldom that teachers, in possession of unimpaired physical powers, do yet find themselves frequently at cross purposes with patrons and wanting in sympathy for those who crave their affections. Yet here was a man tortured hourly in body, who was yet able so to school his powers as to grow daily in the qualities which never failed to win the esteem of those whom he influenced and the love of those whom he controlled. Shall we venture the remark that it is often true of the eminent in any given pursuit or work, that what seems a punishment, a burden or sorrow, is utilized into strength and profit by the nature that carries it. He was a schoolmaster in a large sense. He was master of himself, and of his work. He was master in spite of sore trial,—master whose great power of government was grounded on an active, vigilant, conscious self-control. If, then, his apparent austerity seemed at times to become unpleasant, asperity, it was for the moment only, and if uncalled for, was quickly overcome. It is the testimony of all whom we meet, that he was, although inflexible in the performance of duty, and fearless in the criticism and condemnation of what was wrong, wholly destitute of that vulgar phase of self-esteem which is often characteristic of strong natures, and will not be satisfied with a partial notice of its subject, but will insist upon being heard, and upon having the highest seat, to the extreme discomfort of sensitive ones. He was by no means lukewarm or hesitating in his views and conduct respecting men and things, but, on the contrary, thought and acted with decision and strength. He was capable of saying when occasion demanded, "I may be mistaken," or, "Perhaps I have not looked on all sides of the matter; I do not wish to urge my views upon you." But in the maintenance of a position once taken, or of an opinion definitely given, there was no lack of courage or firmness. This phase of his character was, indeed, to the stranger, or casual acquaintance, most obvious. At times there might have been a feeling on the part of those with whom he met now and then, that there was in his manner and words too much of coldness, of bitterness, of severity. I have talked with persons who felt that Mr. Edwards had even treated them with unkindness, and some may have gone so far as to characterize him as selfish,—but they never knew the man. When pressed for specific reasons for their impressions, none could be given.

Persons seem to be divided into three classes: First. Such as have no definitely marked character. These have no starting-point for anything, no course of life, no grand objects of pursuit, no purposes to fulfill, and, as a plain result, no method in word or conduct, and are guided by neither philosophy nor religion in living. They have their part in the economy of life, and like the unstable forms and loose materials of nature, they readily yield to the forces about them, and go with the winds or drift with the currents. They give way to circumstance and power; cause no harm or offense.

A second class is composed of those who take on a form, and often most pleasing to the view; they have aims and ends to consummate, and they have a distinct mode of living—and they at last come to possess something of that which we call character. But this character is the result of a growth whose general course is contrary to the profounder laws of nature and life; it is from without, and by superficial addition; it never acquires a central solidity or *true* *heart.* This character in building itself up, keeps steadily in view the external form, and is ready to adapt itself to whatever *seems* good, and to use means with reference to no higher principle than that of expediency. It is not a difficult matter for such as these to make sacrifice of principles of right, and therefore they seldom come into open conflict with men, or give cause for criticism or complaint respecting themselves. The chief rule of action is not to displease others for fear of losing in reputation, which, for them, is almost convertible with character.

There is another class, very small in number compared with the first two, but distinguished from them by characters strongly opposite. Its members are known by their marked and positive qualities. They are intensely individual and personal. Whatever they may acquire is incorporated in their natures, and becomes an inseparable component of the character. Their growth is wholly intellectual or spiritual, and on a soil of rational motives. It is a life growth, and from within.

It is in the nature of things that such a character should find itself opposed and thwarted at times, and especially so if possessed of a strong and invincible will and intense desires. A mind so constituted and set in a physical frame to correspond, was not at all likely to be let alone, or pass unrebuked by its enemies—and by enemies I mean more particularly such as were incapable of appreciating fearless opposition, however righteous the motives that actuated.

Wm. Norris Edwards possessed a character of great strength, and it increased in strength with his years. Its power was derived mainly from principle; and it became so powerful as to make him by far the most influential man in the community where he last lived and labored. This is the testimony of many good and true witnesses, and is applicable in more than one sense. This seems to me to be the strongest evidence of genuine greatness of character. Let us remember that he was a schoolmaster—and while I am not here to speak in any other than strong terms of affection of our profession, yet I must remind you of the fact, however unpleasant it may sound, that a man is not the more respected in any community, to say the least, for being a schoolmaster. Shall I go farther and say, that in most places he does not rank with the learned professions? Remember this fact when I tell you, truly and emphatically, that our deceased brother was the strongest man, in every way, in his own community. He was strong enough to express religious and political opinions openly and plainly, from a position that many of us are apt to regard as one of extreme delicacy in its relations to the community, and in the end bear down triumphantly all sectarian and political opposition. He was strong enough to maintain himself in the same position for fifteen years, and yearly add to his means of influence and his power for doing good, and this, too, without recourse to the unpleasant and undignified appeal for place which seems to be an annually recurring necessity with many occupying high positions. His employers would have been quite willing, and the whole community would have sanctioned the adoption of a rule that should continue the good and faithful teacher in his place *at his pleasure*, without subjecting him to the annoyance of an annual reëlection.

He was eminently successful as a teacher and as a superintendent. I have had the pleasure of several conversations with his pupils, his teachers, and with the members of the Troy board of education, and their several testimonies were uniform and consistent with each other. From the lips of pupils who began at the alphabet, and continued under his care until a very thorough course, including four years in the high school, was completed, the belief is gained that he was beloved and respected, and that while he was severe and uncompromising in punishing the wrong-doer, he was yet affectionate and cordial in all his relations with them and in all places,—meeting them in the school-room and abroad as a kind and warm-hearted friend. He is particularly remembered by his pupils as a thorough teacher, clear and pointed in his instruction, and passing nothing not well understood. They always felt free to approach him for any needed information—being constantly encouraged so to do. Resolutions adopted by the members and ex-members of his school, at a meeting held Aug. 12, 1867, express the warmest attachment to their late "beloved superintendent", and affirm that "his pure life shall live forever in the hearts of his grateful pupils—a priceless legacy."

The members of the board of education of Troy all regarded him as unequaled in his character and qualities as an instructor and superintendent. No personal differences of opinion that may have arisen during his long term of service, seem to have weakened his influence with the board. I can not by any words of mine so well represent their friendship and esteem for Mr. Edwards as is done in their own resolutions, adopted at a special meeting of the board, August 3, 1867:

Resolved, That in the death of our departed friend the school, the community, and the church have sustained a loss unspeakable and apparently irreparable.

That in a connection for fifteen years with the Troy Union School, the departed Superintendent manifested not only extraordinary ability as a disciplinarian and educator, but a singularly conscientious fidelity and devotion to his official duties; and that the eminent success of our school has been owing in great part to his personal character and effort.

That we take great pleasure in further recording our conviction that the personal qualities so effective in the promotion of the highest interests of the youth committed to the charge of this good man, had their basis in a deep and religious faith, purifying his heart and making his life beautiful with charities nameless and innumerable.

That we regard the death of our friend as a public calamity demanding general recognition; and that it is, evidently, so considered and felt in this community and elsewhere.

That we offer to his bereaved widow and afflicted relatives our honest, respectful, and tender condolences, suggesting the single consoling thought that he whom they so loved has passed from his labor and suffering to his great reward, and commending them to Him who ever afflicts in mercy and who is indeed the God of grace and consolation.

Resolved further, That as a mark of respect and affection for the deceased, this board will attend his funeral in a body.

GEO. C. CLYDE, *Sec'y.* GEO. D. BURGESS, *Pres't.*

One of the board, a prominent lawyer, said to me that their school was their pride, the highest interest among them, and was so regarded by the entire community. Mr. Edwards organized the school, and, together with a good board which seemed always ready to coöperate with him, built up a system of schools equal, as has been said already, to any in the State, and this, too, in a town containing at present less than five thousand inhabitants. This leads us to the highly pleasing reflection, that our union school system possesses the highest capacity for doing great good. We stand in no manner of doubt as to its power to serve completely the great ends sought by the State. Mr. Edwards' sympathies were all with the public schools which you, as a body, represent. The free school of Troy supplies all the educational wants of that community, excepting such as is afforded by institutions of a higher character than the high school. The course is very comprehensive and thorough, and in itself is almost equal to that of a well approved college. It continues four years, and, in the mathematics, embraces higher arithmetic, algebra, and geometry; in the classics, Cæsar, Virgil, Cicero, Horace, Xenophon, and Homer; and in the natural sciences, physical geography, physiology, botany, philosophy, chemistry, and geology.

Mr. Edwards by personal efforts had gathered a school library of 1,700 volumes, a good apparatus, and a small cabinet. It will repay any one who may visit Troy, to take the trouble of seeing the superintendent's room which is one of the most attractive in the State.

From his pupils I learn that it came to be a matter of course with those who entered the high school to take the regularly prescribed course, and the community had also come to feel this to be best.

In the fifteen years of Mr. Edwards' supervision, there were fifty-three graduates, of whom fifty-two are now living. Not one of these, so far as I know, does not fondly cherish his memory.

What a power for good has thus been trained and sent forth into society in these fifty-two disciplined minds, though small the number seems. And that other pupil, not now living, may we not venture to speak of as a *living companion* of him who led in the right way while on earth, both walking together before the Divine Teacher in undimmed knowledge, and talking to another with the gift of many tongues.

In conversation with Mrs. Edwards, I asked how her husband felt in regard to the loss from school of the many young men who left before completing their course of education—an evil which presents to many of us the most important of educational problems, viz: How to keep young men in school long enough to educate them. This did not seem to annoy Mr. Edwards very much; "for," said he, "if but one sex can be educated, it were better for society that it be the female." Here, it seems to me, is foreshadowed a grand reform, and one, too, which carries in it the only true remedy for the evil we so much lament; for when mothers are well and thoroughly educated, their sons will be much more likely to remain a due length of time in school. Educate the mothers, and the sons will be educated; but neglect that, and all your *expedients* to add to the number of those who continue with us, will fail. Mr. Edwards saw the great want, and how to supply it.

It is a rare thing to find the best qualities of teacher and superintendent united in one man. But the highest success of our graded schools demands superior qualifications in both respects. That it is of the first importance to be a good instructor, can not be doubted. The management of schools, their organization, and the selection and control of teachers, are surely matters of not less importance, and require the highest order of ability.

Mr. Edwards was a good superintendent. His views upon educational doctrines were correct, according to what we call the best standards, and comprehensive. He seemed to cling to no peculiar views which would place him with any particular class of thinkers. He was not a man of one or two ideas exclusive in their nature and embodied in his methods or course of study. In all his dealings with human nature under cultivation, he treated it as a harmonious though complex whole, and provided a variety of food for its nourishment and growth. He followed a well settled and carefully prepared course of study, but was ready to receive new ideas and progressive methods of instruction.

As a superintendent he was exacting in his requirements of inexperienced teachers. He had no tenderness for an unqualified teacher. In this, too, he was controlled by a profound sense of personal responsibility for the good of the many little ones. But he loved nothing better than to direct, in accordance with the best normal methods, the apt pupil-teacher, and his tried and approved assistants found him eminently qualified to teach and direct teachers.

None strove more faithfully and diligently to become well qualified for his work. Mr. Edwards was a whole-souled, hearty worker in every way. Having given himself to the work of instruction, his intensely sincere and earnest nature would not suffer anything to divert or dissipate the energies thus sacredly devoted; and no means nor opportunity for personal or professional improvement was allowed to escape him.

He loved the associations of teachers, and labored zealously for the elevation of the profession. In this respect he accomplished much for his own neighborhood and county, doing more than any other person to give them an active and enlightened spirit, educationally. The entire community received from him and imparted again the intellectual leaven that was a daily product of his energies.

He was regularly present at our annual gatherings, unless kept away by sickness, and manifested an interest in whatever was done. He was chosen President of the State Association, at Elyria, for the year 1861–2, but the Convention failed to realize, in full, the honor conferred upon itself, on account of his absence from that meeting by reason of personal illness.

He was not a pleasant speaker, nor did he often express his views at length, publicly. But he was earnest, plain, and pointed, and usually made himself understood. His work in the Association was principally as a committee-man, an advisor, and in this way he was called upon to do his full share.

In short, we all remember him as a great *schoolmaster*, enthusiastic in all his work, and, without ostentation, laboring wisely, with much diligence, to the last.

In conclusion, let me remind the Association that the faithful wife of Wm. N. Edwards is about to become a missionary in the service of the cause of education. Already she is on her way to Port Natal, Africa, there to take charge of a Girls' Normal School. Let us follow that work with an interest due to itself, but heightened by the recollection that it is done by the esteemed and loved companion of our brother.

Editorial Department.

We omit our "School Officers' Department" this month to make room for the memoir of Mr. Edwards, which should have been published in our last issue but was not received in time. The fact that this number contains much matter of special interest to school officers, will, in part, offset the omission, and next month we hope to make any remaining lack more than good. We are anxious to make this department of the Monthly increasingly instructive and valuable to all school officers, and, to this end, we most earnestly solicit their aid. Brief communications presenting practical suggestions or asking for information, will be gladly received.

We take great pains in mailing the Monthly, being very desirous that the numbers may be received regularly by every subscriber. The fact that we receive very few complaints, is gratifying evidence that our efforts in this direction are not unsuccessful. But we do not wish a single failure to pass uncorrected, and in case any should occur, we desire to be informed of the fact. We had much rather mail an extra number to a subscriber than to have him fail to receive every number due him. We can still supply any numbers that may have been missed since the beginning of the current volume. Subscribers in cities and large towns who have not P. O. boxes should inquire *specially* for the Monthly in case they fail to receive it. In several instances we have written to postmasters in reference to reported missing numbers, and found them in the office waiting to be called for. All the numbers sent to any post-office are inclosed in a single package.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

We present in another place, what we trust may prove a readable and interesting summary of the proceedings of the three National Educational Conventions which met at Nashville, Tenn., the third week of August. We have not aimed to give a dry detailed report of the business, but rather to indicate the scope and spirit of the papers and discussions, and to present the action taken by the Associations on the several subjects considered. Most of these subjects are of fundamental importance, and what educators most desire to learn, are the views expressed by the leading speakers and the conclusions finally reached.

The attendance at the several meetings was not large, a fact partly due to the late announcement of railroad arrangements, together with the excessive heat of July which caused many to abandon the idea of a trip South in August. Still nearly all the States were represented by eminent educators, and the proceedings were able and interesting. The delegation from Ohio consisted of Dr. I. W. Andrews, W. E. Crosby, Dr. R. S. Rust, Rev. E. M. Cravath, G. K. Bartholomew, R. Q. Beer, E. E. White, Miss Tingley, and Miss Ray—truly a small delegation for the Buckeye State.

All the delegates from abroad, gentlemen as well as ladies, were hospitably entertained, those stopping at the hotels finding their bills paid by the city—a fact worthy of commendation as well as record. The city authorities also invited the Association to visit the State Lunatic Asylum, located a few miles from Nashville, but the limited time for business prevented an acceptance of the invitation.

Both the time and place of these conventions added to their importance. All of the Southern States but three have now entered on the great task of organizing systems of public schools, and are anxious to lay the foundations of these systems wisely and well. To this end they desire to be guided by the experience of the States which have long maintained public schools. A meeting of the leading practical educators of the country concentrates this experience, and makes it directly available and increasingly valuable for the purposes of guidance. But of all the States now organizing school systems, Tennessee has made the most progress and is best prepared to profit by the deliberations of a national council of educators. This fact was apparent to all who attended the Nashville meetings. The influence of the proceedings on popular education in Tennessee, was felt at every step of their progress. "These meetings will do us great good," was the unanimous and hearty verdict of the public school men of the State. Our regret is, that a thousand educators were not in council.

On the first day of the meeting of the National Teachers' Association, the members in a body paid their respects to Mrs. President Polk. They were introduced by ex-Gov. Foote, of Mississippi, and were received by Mrs. Polk with great cordiality and politeness. She expressed herself highly pleased to be visited by those whom she regarded as the real benefactors of the race as well as the representatives of learning and culture. The delegates remained in the elegant parlors and on the grounds for about an hour, and then retired, delighted with their visit. Mrs. Polk is an illustrious representative of American women, graceful and unassuming in manners, and noble and virtuous in character and life.

VISIT TO MAMMOTH CAVE.

The exercises of the National Teachers' Association were shortened one day to give the members an opportunity to visit Mammoth Cave, Ky., before the Sabbath. The opportunity was improved by some fifty persons representing nearly all sections of the country, and forming one of the pleasantest excursion parties we have ever enjoyed. The party left Nashville early Friday morning, arriving at Cave City station at 10½ o'clock, and thence by stage coaches seven miles to the Cave, reaching "Cave Hotel" in time for dinner.

At 2 o'clock the company, suitably dressed for the purpose, entered the Cave, and taking the "Short Route" visited its many objects of interest. A considerable portion of this route is in the Main Cave which is six miles in length and from forty to one hundred feet in hight and from sixty to three hundred feet in width. It is a grand avenue, and is strewn for nearly half its length with the remains of vats and log water-pipes, used by the saltpeter miners in 1812.

The interest of the party was increased by each successive "wonder" until the "Gothic Chapel" was reached, where the emotions of all sought expression in impromptu exercises, opening with the hymn, "My country 'tis of thee,' which was sung with great impressiveness. Dr. Gregory, of Illinois, Mr. White, of Ohio, Prof. North, of New York, and Prof. Newell, of Maryland, were called on and responded in brief speeches. The solid foundations and the massive arch above, the very symbols of strength and endurance, suggested patriotic and religious sentiments whose utterance awoke a response in every heart. The eternal night that reigns in the Cave suggested to Prof. North the city that has no need of the sun, for the Lord God is the light thereof—a sentiment which found a touching response in the song, "Say, brothers, will you meet me,' whose melody filled the vast chamber and died away in distant echoes.

But the interest of the party culminated at the "Star Chamber" which is the most impressive and beautiful object seen in the Short Route. It is sixty feet in hight, seventy feet in width, and about five hundred feet in length. The ceiling, composed of black gypsum, is studded with numerous white points which have a striking resemblance to stars. The skillful guide added the illusions of an approaching storm and the rising sun, making the scene exceedingly beautiful and impressive.

We reached the mouth of the Cave about 7 o'clock, and repaired to the hotel for supper and rest.

On Saturday the Long Route, said to be nine miles in length, was taken. It leaves the Main Cave at the "Giant's Coffin"—some two miles from the entrance—and, by a long, tortuous, descending passage, opens at last into an immense avenue which, under the names of "River Hall" and "The Great Walk," leads to "Echo River." The scenery is wild beyond description, and "The Dead Sea," "River Styx," and "Lake Lethe" awaken not over pleasant reflections and emotions.

The passage of Echo River was the most impressive incident of the route. The boats could not accommodate but one half of our party, and as they passed from sight, accompanied with sweet strains of music which filled the chamber with repeating and receding echoes, thoughts of the river Jordan and the "friends crossed before" filled the soul with overwhelming emotions. In a few minutes we heard the faint echoes of the returning boatmen, and we, in turn, soon glided under the low and narrow arch out into the more capacious channel, where we caught sight of the friends on the other shore who greeted us with waving lanterns and songs of welcome.

Silliman's Avenue," a mile and a half long, and the pass of El Ghor, two miles in length, lead us to "Washington Hall," where we found our dinner served on the rocks. The avenue beyond is the finest portion of the Cave. It is about two miles long, about sixty feet wide, and from ten to twenty feet high. The ceiling is at first covered with nodules of white gypsum resembling snowballs, and these are succeeded by alabaster flowers of great beauty. The avenue soon rises into a different formation which extends to the "Rocky Mountain", on the far side of which is a grand gorge called "Dismal Hollow." As this gorge was illuminated by a Bengal light, the scene was indescribably grand. From the summit of the Rocky Mountain we retraced our steps, reaching the mouth of the cave at 7 o'clock, having walked the eighteen miles in ten hours, and this too without excessive weariness—a fact largely due to the pure and bracing air of the cave. As we reached the outer atmosphere it seemed laden with offensive and oppressive gases.

Coaches for the Nashville train were waiting, and a part of our delightful company bid us a hurried but hearty good bye. Two hours later the coach for the Louisville train was winding down the Kentucky hills and the forests were echoing with songs and hymns.

Our account has already extended beyond our limited space, and we conclude it with a throng of pleasing memories unexpressed. Mammoth Cave must be seen; it can not be described.

CINCINNATI TEACHERS' NORMAL INSTITUTE.

The leading friends of the public school system of our city have long recognized the importance of a professional training for her teachers. Mr. King, for so many years the honored president of our board of education, has always been an earnest advocate for the establishment of a city normal school, and this interest has not been restricted to Cincinnati, for he has been equally earnest in advocating a normal school for the State. His successor in office, Col. Fisher, is no less interested in the same objects. But a normal school could be but prospective in its results, while the more enlightened members of the educational board felt the necessity for the professional instruction of the teachers already in their employ to be instant and imperative. The result of this feeling and much discusssion, was the establishment, some four years ago, of the Cincinnati Teachers' Normal Institute, designed to give all the teachers of the public schools one week's instruction in methods of teaching each year, just previous to the opening of the regular school session. The first two sessions the instruction was carried on by teachers from our own corps. While these sessions were doubtless productive of much good, it was felt they lacked that infusion of new ideas necessary to give them the highest interest and success. Last year the very efficient committee appointed by the board for the conduct and supervision of the Institute, resolved to bring before our teachers the ablest instructors from abroad that could be obtained, keeping specially in view the introduction into our schools of the natural or object method of teaching. To this end, Professors Armstrong and Krusi, the Misses Seaver and Cooper, and Mrs. Mary Howe Smith, all of the Oswego Normal School, were employed. These able teachers excited an interest in professional training that had not before existed among the teachers of our city. Their instruction and this interest fixed the board of education in its determination to establish a regular normal school as soon as possible. To the credit of the board for enlightened liberality, all questions relating to the school have been settled in its favor by a unanimous vote. But unforeseen difficulties in the way of obtaining competent teachers, have prevented the starting of the school until the present month.

The session of the Normal Institute that closed on the 6th inst., in its main features resembled that of last year. Three of the teachers employed in that —Mrs. Smith, Miss Seaver, and Miss Cooper—were employed in this, and with still greater success and acceptance in their labor. Miss Cooper took the subject of oral grammar, and from her clear presentation of it, and from the fact that it is to be taught hereafter in our district schools without a text-book, we have no doubt her instruction will be found of great practical benefit in every grade of those schools. Mrs. Smith gave her course in geography, and Miss Seaver excellent instruction in object lessons. The latter was ably assisted in her department by Miss Sarah Dugane, lately of the Training School in Boston, but now at the head of the Cincinnati Normal School. The lectures and experiments in natural science were by Prof. O. M. Stoddard, of Miami University, and we know of no one better able to make his theme attractive. He was listened to with the greatest interest throughout his whole course. Prof. Mark Bailey, of Yale College, had the elocution in his charge. The naturalness and taste displayed in his readings, and his originality and correctness of views as to the methods of instruction in his specialty, received the heartiest approval from all his hearers. Mrs. J. H. Jones, teacher in one of our schools, gave instruction in methods teaching reading in primary grades, and fully sustained herself in comparison with teachers more widely known. The instruction in music was by our four regular music teachers in the schools, and finer choral singing has seldom been heard in Cincinnati than that done by the teachers of our public schools during this session of the Institute.

Teachers from the country and towns round about, to the number of a hundred or a hundred and fifty, were in constant attendance during the session, with a large number of visitors from among our own citizens.

The exercises of Saturday afternoon were short speeches by several members of the board, interspersed with readings by Prof. Bailey and vocal music by the teachers. Col. Fisher, president of the board of education, made the closing address. It was witty, practical, and sound in every particular.

Altogether, we feel that the last session of our Normal Institute has been an eminent success.

Cincinnati, Sept., 1868.

WE are now through with the State and National Associations, and our readers may look for our usual quantity of live, progressive professional articles. The most valuable educational paper the year has produced, is ex-Gov. Cox's Oberlin address on "What Knowledge is of Most Worth." We shall publish it soon.

MISCELLANY.

THE goodly number of subscribers lately received has nearly exhausted our supply of back numbers. Subscriptions hereafter received may begin with the October number. Subscription price, $1.50 a year.

THE late appearance of this number is due to the editor's absence during the last two weeks of September, to attend the teachers' institutes held at Massillon and Kent. The November number will appear the first week of the month.

THE following resolutions, passed by the Ohio Teachers' Association, were omitted last month, but have since been received:

> WHEREAS, Some educational journal is esssential to every teacher; and, whereas, the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, in the language of the Hon. B. G. Northrop, Sec'y of the Board of Education of Connecticut, "is not surpassed by any other educational journal in this land, in the ability, variety, and practical character and value of its articles": Therefore,
>
> *Resolved*, That we earnestly recommend the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY to every teacher in the land.
>
> *Resolved*, That the Hon. E. E. White is justly entitled to, and is hereby tendered the thanks of this Association for the energy and fidelity with which he has served the teachers of the State.

INSTITUTES.—The fact that our "Miscellany" was omitted last month to make room for the proceedings of the State Teachers' Association, has crowded it this month with the reports of institutes. We have been obliged to condense these notices more than usual, and still several must appear next month. The whole number of institutes held in the State since the first of July, of which we have information, is *forty-four*—a larger number than has ever before been held in these months in any year.

MCARTHUR.—Vinton County Teachers' Institute was held the week beginning July 20th. About 70 teachers in attendance. The instructors were Prof. Kidd on elocution, Prof. Young on theory and practice, primary instruction, and English grammar, and Prof. Schuyler on arithmetic and geography.

MCCONNELSVILLE.—Morgan County Teachers' Institute was held during the week beginning Aug. 17th. Profs. Young, Kidd, and Stevenson, instructors. A hundred and twenty teachers were in attendance.

CIRCLEVILLE.—A four weeks' normal institute was organized July 13th, with 49 teachers, and was followed by a five days' institute, with 75 teachers. The instructors in the normal institute were W. H. Wolf, S. J. Wolf, and J. C. Dunn, and the institute lecturers were Hon. J. A. Norris, J. C. Harper, J. C. Hartzler, Rev. J. F. Reinmund, and Prof. Childs, of Mo. Resolutions were unanimously passed pertaining to county supervision and a higher standard of qualification among teachers. Steps were taken to organize township institutes. Eighteen subscribers to the MONTHLY were secured. This was the first effort of the kind in this county, and was a decided success. SEC'Y.

CAMBRIDGE.—The third annual session of the Guernsey County Normal Institute was conducted by Messrs. W. K. Gooderl, James Hammond, and John McBurney, who won high commendation. There were 68 members enrolled, of whom 45 take the MONTHLY—a fact worthy of mention. Forty-one intend to make teaching their calling. We received 32 subscribers.

EATON.—The Preble County Institute opened July 27th and continued two weeks, under the supervision of Prof. Edward Orton, of Antioch College. Prof. Daniel

Vaughan, of Cincinnati, gave lectures in physiology and physical geography, and several teachers present assisted in the work of instruction. Some 55 teachers were in attendance, and the institute was regarded a very successful one. Mr. G. C. Dasher sent us 20 subscribers.

BATAVIA.—A three weeks' institute was held at Batavia beginning July 27th. The number of teachers in attendance was 160, and the exercises were exceedingly interesting. The corps of teachers consisted of J. K. Parker, Geo. H. Hill, J. Akels, John H. Laycock, M. A. Leeds, J. C. Morris, and W. O. Hopkins, assisted by T. W. Harvey, John Hancock, Geo. C. Woollard, Lyman Harding, and Prof. McMathews. The interest increased from the first day to the last. We received 54 subscribers—the largest number received from any institute held this year. We have presented the sender, Mr. Geo. H. Hill, with a copy of Webster's New Unabridged.

ADAMS COUNTY.—A teachers' institute was held at West Liberty, opening July 27th and continuing three weeks. The number of teachers enrolled was upwards of 100—a much larger attendance than at any previous session. The instructors were Rev. Wm. Coleman, A. G. Wilson, J. U. McClany. Great interest was manifested in the exercises, and substantial progress was made. A permanent association was organized, and resolutions, in favor of a higher standard of qualification for teachers and a uniformity of text-books in the county, were adopted. COM.

PIQUA.—The Miami County Institute held a two weeks' session at Piqua, beginning July 27th. The instructors the first week were T. W. Harvey and H. B. Furness; the second week, W. Richardson and E. E. White. Hon. Anson Smyth was present one day, and gave two very interesting lectures—one on the "Qualifications of Teachers" and the other on "Ohio." About 80 teachers were in attendance. The *Journal* said: "It is the universal expression of those connected with it, that it was the most profitable and interesting session ever held in the county. * * * The lectures were a feast in themselves—such as Piqua has not enjoyed for years."

BELLEFONTAINE.—The county institute opened August 10th and closed on the 15th. There were 58 teachers in attendance. The lecturers were R. W. Stevenson, W. Wright, and Joseph Shaw who also had charge of the institute. The interest and enthusiasm increased until the last moment. The association voted to hold a normal institute of four weeks next year, and took the initiatory steps to get an appropriation from the county. We received 18 subscribers.

GALLIPOLIS.—Our institute held August 10–14, was a great success. The number of teachers enrolled was 130, and nearly all were in regular attendance. Prof. Young and Capt. Mitchell gave instruction, and did most excellent service. Capt. Norris gave one lecture well worth remembering. Many school officers in the county attended the institute, and manifested as much interest as the teachers. Gallia county is thoroughly waked up on all educational improvements. I send you 31 subscribers, and hope to add a few more names. C.

POMEROY.—The institute held here from August 10th to 15th, was the most satisfactory of any ever held in the county. The number of names registered was 102. The principal instructors were Hon. John A. Norris, Prof. Robt. Kidd, and Prof. Benj. Lang, of Portsmouth. Mr. Norris gave two evening addresses and Prof. Kidd three elocutionary entertainments—all to full houses. Resolutions were passed indorsing educational measures, and a memorial to the General Assembly requesting the passage of the county superintendency bill, received the signatures of 96 teachers. The MONTHLY received 20 subscribers. If the teachers of Meigs are not fully awake, there are, at least, some favorable signs of life. Y.

HILLSBORO.—The fourth annual session of the Highland County Institute was held the first week of August. The instructors were John Hancock, of Cincinnati, (present one day,) Lewis McKibben, and Rev. David Copeland, President of Hillsboro Female College. Evening lectures were delivered by Mr. Hancock and Rev. J. McD. Mathews. The receipt of 19 subscribers is evidence that the institute was a *live* one.

WILMINGTON.—There was an unusual interest in the normal institute which closed a session of four weeks on the 21st of August. This was evinced not only by the teachers, but by the citizens generally. The enrollment was 67, and the number of subscribers secured for the MONTHLY, 14. We have no further information.

GLENDALE.—The Hamilton County Institute closed its session Friday evening, Aug. 21, with a splendid entertainment, consisting of music, tableaux, and recitations. During the week over one hundred teachers, with many visitors, were present. Lectures were delivered by Prof. Kidd, A. B. Johnson, Geo. C. Woollard, T. W. Harvey, Prof. Vaughn, McCammon Dill, E. N. Clopper, and M. S. Turrill. Addresses were given by Judge Stanley Mathews, Mrs. Burns, John Talbott, Mrs. Jones, John Hancock, Rev. Dr. Burt, Dr. Potter, Prof. Anderson, of New York, and U. T. Curran, president of the association. The music was conducted by Prof. Miller and Miss Woollard. Mr. Graeser, of Cincinnati, gave instruction in gymnastics. All members of the institute were accommodated in the elegant rooms of the Glendale Female College. Comfort, instruction, and pleasure were happily conjoined. D.

NEWARK.—Our two weeks' institute closed August 28th. We had 120 teachers in attendance and a very enthusiastic time—what one of the lecturers called a *rousing* time. The teachers in Old Licking were awake for once. The instructors from abroad were T. W. Harvey, R. W. Stevenson, Pres. S. Talbot, Mr. Alcutt, teacher of elocution. Capt. Mitchell, of your city, dropped in on Friday, and made us a speech. I send you the names of 25 subscribers. G. W. W.

CHILLICOTHE.—The institute held in this city last week (Aug. 10–15) was the largest and most interesting one ever held in Ross county. There were 95 teachers enrolled. The exercises were conducted by Prof. E. T. Tappan, of Ohio University, who is one of the best institute lecturers in the State. I send you a list of 31 subscribers, secured by a committee appointed for the purpose. J. H. P.

WAYNESVILLE.—A normal institute under the direction of J. C. Ridge, of Dayton, closed on the 14th of August. Some 50 teachers were in attendance, and our correspondent says that the session was pleasant and profitable. No further information was sent us. We received 12 subscribers with the assurance that the MONTHLY is believed to be "the best educational periodical published."

LOGAN.—The institute held at Logan the last week of August, was the first ever held in Hocking county. It was conducted by Prof. Eli T. Tappan, assisted by J. C. Harper and Mr. Manly. The assurance that it was "a very good institute," was backed up by the names of 12 subscribers.

XENIA.—The teachers' institute in Greene county was held the third week of August, with 48 teachers in attendance. The instructors were J. C. Kinney, who directed the exercises, Geo. S. Ormsby, and Prof. Wm. Smith. A good degree of interest among the teachers was awakened.

ZANESVILLE.—The Muskingum County Institute held its annual session the third week of August with an average attendance of about 50 teachers, and with a fair degree of interest on the part of both teachers and citizens. Our lecturers were Prof.

Theo. Sterling, of Kenyon College, Prof. S. C. Marshall, of Muskingum College, and R. P. Shaw, of Bellefontaine. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Munson and Rev. D. H. Moore. It affords me pleasure to send you the names of 18 subscribers.

A. T. W.

GREENVILLE.—The Darke County Institute was held at Greenville, beginning Aug. 25th, and continuing two weeks. About 70 teachers were present, and the feeling and interest were good. Instruction, well adapted in matter and method to the wants of our schools, was given by Supt. Richardson, of Piqua, Supt. Macomber, of Greenville, Mr. Geo. H. Martz, and Miss Lavender who gave some interesting lessons in primary teaching. Mr. Richardson gave two evening lectures, and Mr. Macomber closed the exercises with a lecture on "The Stand-point of Schools in Civilization."

COM.

MT. GILEAD.—An interesting and profitable institute was held at Mt. Gilead the week beginning August 10th. The principal instructor was Supt. W. E. Crosby, of Lima, who was assisted by J. C. Harper, of Bucyrus. Lectures were delivered by Hon. Anson Smyth, of Cleveland, and Rev. M. Crosley, of Mt. Gilead. The exercises were directed by Supt. Lewis, president of the association.

VENTILATION.—We desire to call attention to the advertisement of the "United States Ventilation Co." found in this number. The claim that their system of ventilation is successful, is backed up by numerous and strong testimonials. If this be true, one great need of our schools is at last met.

NORTH CAROLINA.—A normal school of six weeks closed at Bush Hill on the 8th of August. It was under the supervision of Joseph Moore, and was attended by 100 students—teachers and persons intending to become teachers. This good news was accompanied by the names of 33 subscribers.

PERSONAL ITEMS.—Our drawer contains quite a number of personal items which will appear next month. We hope friends will keep us posted in school affairs, as we desire to make our "Miscellany" full and interesting.

CAPT. WM. MITCHELL has been re-elected superintendent of the public schools of this city, at a salary of $2,500.

BOOK NOTICES.

WEBSTER'S SCHOOL DICTIONARIES: Consisting of Webster's Academic Dictionary, Webster's High School Dictionary, Webster's Common School Dictionary, and Webster's Primary School Dictionary. New Editions—illustrated. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1868.

The revision of Webster's Quarto Dictionary, completed in 1864, added many improvements to this great standard work, and made necessary a careful revision of the abridged editions to bring them into full conformity with it. This revision of the school editions has been made by one of the editors of the revised Quarto, and these works are now unequaled either in accuracy or value. The entire series is illustrated in a manner similar to the larger work, and valuable articles and tables have been embodied in the introduction and appendix. A good dictionary is an essential aid to the intelligent pupil, and where Webster's Unabridged or National Pictorial is not found on the teacher's table, one of these school dictionaries should be on the desk of every pupil.

STODDARD'S COMPLETE ARITHMETIC: Being the New Practical Arithmetic of the Series, with Additions for a Full Course of Instruction in High Schools and Academies. By JOHN F. STODDARD, A.M., Author of the Normal Mathematical Series. New York: Sheldon & Company. 1868.

This book has been on our table several weeks waiting to receive attention. On opening it we find that the first 303 pages are taken from the author's New Practical Arithmetic—a work which we recently commended as one of great excellence. The succeeding pages embrace a fuller treatment of circulating decimals, continued fractions, and those topics which relate largely to business, including the Metric System. This supplementary matter is presented in the same clear and concise manner as the preceding pages, and the whole is worthy of being called a "complete" text-book. It is one of the most attractive and thorough arithmetics now before the public.

REMARKABLE CHARACTERS AND MEMORABLE PLACES OF THE HOLY LAND: Comprising an account of Patriarchs, Judges, Prophets, Apostles, Women, Warriors, Poets, and Kings, with Descriptions of Ancient Cities and Venerated Shrines. By CHAS. W. ELLIOTT, T. D. WOOLSEY, LL.D., Rt. Rev. THOS. M. CLARK, D.D., Rev. JOSEPH CUMMINGS, D.D., Rev. HENRY WARD BEECHER, etc., etc. Hartford, Conn.: J. B. Burr & Co.

The title-page of this work is a guarantee that it is one of value and interest, and a perusal of its pages brings no disappointment. It is not a methodical treatise, but rather a collection of treatises, each writer presenting information on the subject in which he feels the deepest interest, and which he is best qualified to discuss. The whole presents a large amount of valuable information. The work is sold by subscription only.

MODEL WORD BOOKS. I. The Model Definer. II. The Model Etymology, with Sentences Showing the Correct Use of Words, and a Key giving the Analysis of English Words. By A. C. WEBB. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.

The aim of these two books is to teach the meaning and use of words, and this is done in a very satisfactory manner. The first book containing but forty-eight pages, presents a limited number of words, first giving their definition, and then illustrating the same by their *use* in sentences. It also presents the etymology of a few well-selected words. The second book, as its title indicates, is devoted more largely to etymology, but the plan of uniting the definition and use of words to teach their meaning is fully carried out. We feel confident that these important works prepared by one of the most successful teachers in the public schools of Philadelphia, will be heartily welcomed by American teachers. We hope they may secure a more careful study of words in our schools—a matter now too much neglected.

HARPER'S WRITING BOOKS: Symmetrical Penmanship with Marginal Drawing Lessons. Number Five. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This number presents the same system of instruction as the preceding numbers. The first three copies embrace all the small and capital letters, classified according to their form, and the succeeding copies combine them in words and sentences. The drawing lessons on the margin present a great variety of beautiful and simple exercises. This book completes this excellent series.

SCHOOLDAY VISITOR.—This young people's magazine, published by Daughaday & Becker, Philadelphia, is one of the best magazines of its class now published. See their advertisement.

THE LITTLE CORPORAL.—This sprightly and valiant children's paper is hereafter to be published in pamphlet form. Success to it.

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DRAWING IN UNGRADED SCHOOLS.

BY PROF. W. H. YOUNG.*

In the MONTHLY for June, I gave some hints on the feasibility, means, and methods of drawing in ungraded schools, together with a single illustrative lesson and some of the educational points involved.

I submit here a few additional lessons, by way of throwing further light upon the subject, and showing yet more fully the advantages of drawing as a branch of instruction in all classes of schools. They are drawn in part from a little book called Peale's Graphics, which teachers will find of great utility.

The points to be kept in view are concert-exercises, economy of time, object-teaching, awakened interest, and habits of attention, observation, comparison, discrimination, and investigation; cultivation of the perceptive faculties, original thought, gaining of useful ideas, language, etc., etc.

First Lesson. See MONTHLY for June.

Second Lesson. Review previous lesson. Place right rod in horizontal position, call attention to its *direction* without giving the name (cultivation of perception); point pupils to the difference between this and the vertical (comparison and discrimination); require them to place right rods in same direction, criticising the faulty (attention and precision); draw from them the term *level* (cultivation of thought); call for examples of things that are *level*, giving them a start, as the window-sill, edge of the table, upper or lower edge of blackboard, etc., until the *idea* is well fixed (gaining ideas). Then give the proper term, HOR-I-ZON-TAL, with enough display to make an impression; require its distinct, full, correct ennunciation several times in concert until the term is fixed (gaining language). Then beginning with the smaller pupils, carefully and patiently draw from each an example of the horizontal until each pupil has given one, or all the familiar examples are taken. The older pupils coming last, will be put to their best thought to find examples (thought discipline, object-teaching, habits of observation and investigation, attention, interest, and useful knowledge for all). Each example given should be embodied in a distinct, grammatical proposition, thus: The window-sill is *horizontal* (whole school repeat); the edge of the table is *horizontal* (school repeat); the top of the door is *horizontal* (school repeat), etc., (cultivation of language, memory of terms). Additional examples: Bottom of door, top of window-frame, edge of ceiling, cross-bars in window-sash, upper and lower edges of panes of glass in windows, eaves of school-house, fence rails on a level piece of ground, standing water, etc.

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Let the lesson close with drill exercise with rods; let the primary pupils be put at once to making two inch horizontal lines on their slates; let the writing exercise begin with a slate or paper and pencil exercise in two-inch horizontals (hand training and perception of distance); in grammatical and arithmetical exercises, on slate and blackboard, require horizontal writing and rows of figures (practice of principles and application of knowledge, with intelligent cultivation of taste). Let a distinct horizontal line, with the term written under, stand upon the blackboard for several days (a constant review to the perception and memory of terms).

Third Lesson. Review preceding lessons. Introduce the OBLIQUE direction in above manner, calling it slanting or sloping until the *idea* is fixed, then giving and fixing the proper term. Exemplify by rods, by lines on blackbord, by comparison with verticals and horizontals. Examples: The end edge of a sloping desk, pen or pencil when one writes, poker or broom leaning against the wall, body of a boy when he runs fast, gable edge of the school-house roof, fence rails on a side hill, spokes of a wagon wheel, wind blowing wheat or corn, trees on the bank of a stream (draw out the reason), main limbs of most plants and trees (draw out the reason), falling rain when air is stirring, etc. These examples require more thought, but are so much the better for it. If pupils are not ready at first lesson, continue it for another exercise, requiring them to bring more examples next time. (Observation, investigation, and thought put into active play, and a lively interest awakened in acquiring useful knowledge.) Make constant applications in writing, geographical, arithmetical, grammatical, and *conversational* exercises. (Familiarizing and utilizing knowledge.)

Fourth Lesson. Review preceding. Present both rods vertically six inches apart (to the school): "Are they in *same direction?*" Present them horizontally: "Are they in *same direction?*" Present them obliquely but parallel: "Are they in *same direction?*" Place them in each of the above directions, parallel but not opposite: "Are they in *same* direction?" Require pupils to imitate after you all the above illustrations, in each case emphasizing and dwelling upon the idea of *sameness of direction* until the *idea* is fixed. Draw out or give the proper term, PAR-AL-LEL. Fix the *term* by embodying many examples in propositions, letting each pupil give one, and all the school repeat in concert. Drill-exercise as before with rods, and applications in all blackboard, slate, and copy-book exercises.

Fifth Lesson. Review all the preceding and continue the last. Require examples *combining* ideas; as, VERTICAL PARALLELS—edges of door and window frames, edges of door, ends of blackboard, posts of a board fence, legs of breakfast table, posts of bedstead, etc.; HORIZONTAL PARALLELS—edges of table, edges of ceiling, window cap and sill, edges of weather-boards, cracks in floor, bed-rails, bed-cords when well stretched, etc.; OBLIQUE PARALLELS—bodies of boys when racing, rails and boards of fences running up or down hill, shingles on the roof, rafters in a barn or house. Make applications as before to school work, requiring rows of figures to be horizontal or vertical parallels, words in written spelling to be in horizontal or vertical parallels, etc. Let the drill exercise with rods combine distance with direction, the graduated rods serving as guides. For instance, the command may be, *Horizontal parallels!* ONE FOOT A PART!! HALF A FOOT!! NINE INCHES!! and so with other directions and distances. Patterns for smaller pupils, an upright ladder, picket fence, comb, etc.

Sixth Lesson. Review briefly preceding lessons. Present rods making any convenient angle, say 45°; draw out some name for it, as corner, opening; enlarge and diminish it, present it upon the blackboard, require its representation by rods, call for an example or two until the *idea* is fixed; give the proper term, ANGLE; as before require frequent repetition of term in connection with examples, first singly, then in concert. Examples: corner of a book, table, desk, blackboard, door, book partly open, fingers when hand is widely stretched, feet when one stands gracefully, fence corners, gable edges of a roof, etc, Follow all previous directions as far as applicable. Patterns, any simple, plane, angular figures.

Seventh Lesson. Review last. Present rods parallel, vertical, horizontal, and oblique; call attention to the definition, PARALLELISM is *sameness of direction;* bring out the facts that parallels on lines in same direction can not make an angle with each other; that the less the *difference of direction* the smaller the *angle*; that the greater the *difference of direction* the greater the *angle;* and thus pass to the definition that an *angle* is the difference of direction between two lines. Carefully and patiently fix this thought by recalling former examples at some length, thus: The corner or *angle* of the table is the *difference in direction* of its side and end; the *angle* between the outstretched fore-finger and long finger is the *difference in direction* of the two fingers. Hasten slowly here. Patterns, same as last.

Eighth Lesson. Same as seventh.

Ninth Lesson. Review last three. Present one rod vertical touching the other, horizontal, at its middle point; note the direction of the first is right *square* across the other, and the angles are equal, *i.e.*, the difference of direction is the same whether you go from right to left, or from left to right, on the horizontal rod. Exhibit same thing on blackboard, keeping prominent the idea of *equality* of angles. Then let both rods be oblique, but perpendicular to each other, until the ideas of *perpendicularity* and *equality* of *adjacent* angles are associated and fixed. Finally, give the term, PER-PEN-DIC-U-LAR, and associate it with the *idea* by numerous examples drawn by pupils from the school-house, play-ground, farm, shop, barn, etc. Patterns, any simple, plane figures involving perpendiculars. Many capital letters are good; so also are outlines of houses, windows, etc. See margin of Harper's writing books.

Tenth Lesson. Same as ninth.

Eleventh Lesson. Develop from the idea of perpendicularity, by means of rods, blackboard, and familiar examples, the idea of the *right angle;* then give the term, and fix it by methods similar to the above. Patterns, capital letters and any simple rectangular figures. Keep up the drill exercise with rods, encouraging constant criticism to secure care, precision, close comparison, and nice discrimination.

Twelfth Lesson. Review last. Develop, as in last, the idea of the *acute angle, less than a right angle,* and fix the term by numerous examples, taking as large a range as possible, but not beyond the observation of children. Patterns, capital letters, stars, wagon wheels, etc.

Thirteenth Lesson. Review last two. Introduce obtuse angle.

Fourteenth Lesson. Review last three. Call attention to properties and names of adjacent and opposite angles when lines meet. This is for older pupils.

Fifteenth Lesson. Same as fourteenth.

None of these lessons should occupy more than five minutes. Smaller pupils, in each case, should be put to practice on the slate after the lesson. The writing lesson should be preceded by a brief drawing exercise (drawn from the previous drawing lesson), in which primary pupils should take a part. The principles and terms should be constantly applied, wherever appropriate, in the whole school work and play.

A TALK AFTER SCHOOL HOURS.

BY HANNAH CLARKE.

Miss Helen Forcem, teacher of little boys, sat in her schoolroom one evening, taking an inventory of her capacities for successfully closing the year. Her meditations were interrupted by the entrance of her friend, Miss Jane Leedum, also a teacher in the same building.

Jane. Good evening, Helen; all alone? You must have had perfect recitations to-day, since there are no delinquents to keep. Why, I do believe you are sorry about it; you look so serious.

Helen. There was a number of delinquents, but I did not keep them. I begin to think that it does children no good to detain them for imperfect lessons.

J. But examination is so near, and I understand we shall have a very strict test this time. Miss Black stays every evening until six, and not only that, but comes at eight o'clock in the morning.

H. Do you mean to say that she begins school at that time?

J. Yes; she is so anxious to have her boys pass a good examination.

H. Well, it *may* be necessary to teach eight or nine hours instead of six, but I am not of that opinion. I think it is worse than folly. It is a misuse of the teacher's time and strength, and if I were one of the pupils it would seem to me very much like an imposition. Miss Black confessed to me the other day, that she could not eat her meals, nor enjoy rest of any kind, she was so "worried" about the results of this examination. I tell you, Jane, I am heartily tired of the whole system, if it requires so much tread-mill work as this, and I don't care about teaching another day!

J. Why, Helen, what has happened?

H. Nothing has *happened;* this has been on my mind for a long time, but I am speaking now of my own individual case.

J. Have your boys been getting up a conspiracy?

H. Joking aside, they are doing that all the time—always thinking of some fresh mischief. They have no sense of politeness, nor even of common civility. They are untidy, deceitful, cruel, and profane, and nothing delights them so much as the destruction of property, limb, or life. If smart, they are restless and malicious; if quiet and harmless, they are stupid. Their love of cruelty is so strong, that they could not, upon any account, pass by a frog, or any small creature, without pelting, if not killing it,—and this is the material out of which we are to mould thoughtful and intelligent men! I have had serious thoughts of becoming literary, and writing an article on the "Total Depravity of Boys."

J. (Laughing.) You have left the poor fellows a very small share of reputation, I should think. Do you expect to reform the whole population by a few good maxims or anecdotes, or even by continued lessons on morality and kindness to dumb animals? I admit that some (not all) boys are as evil as you represent them; but let me ask you to have more faith in them—more faith, confidence, and *continuity*, as the phrenologists say. The grand results that you are impatiently looking for will not show themselves at once. You have said at other times that you were exacting. Are you not so in this?

H. But what reward has a teacher, if some of her efforts are not followed by improved behavior in the children?

J. You may answer that by answering this question: Have you noticed a single case of improvement, in any respect among your boys, since you came among them?

H. Why, to be sure, a few have mended their manners. As regards cleanliness, there's Teddy and Sammy who always wear collars now, and, of course, I take every occasion to praise them for being neat. But what is the reform of two or three, or even half a dozen, when there are fifty of the unreclaimed. I have talked and scolded long enough to have every one of them perfect.

J. Scolded, Helen? Be careful, or I shall think we have found the cause of your failure, if it is a failure. Like the renowned matron of Dotheboy's Hall, you offer them this mixture of moral and sentimental æsthetic, brimstone and molasses, and because they don't swallow readily, you metaphorically rap them on the head or knuckles with the spoon.

H. Oh, I have long since concluded that they regard me as a mild form of the termagant, and as you have quoted Mrs. Squeers, let me urge a matter that the excellent Wackford, Esq., spoke of in derision, namely, "a shop for morals." Understand, Jane, I don't intend that literally, but when I see so much attention given to the mechanical education of both boys and girls, so much anxiety bestowed on the branches of study, and little or none on the "fine arts", if I may so call them, of politeness, cleanliness, respectful demeanor in the street, a love for beautiful things, and a consideration for the feelings of dumb creatures, I make up my mind that something is wrong, fearfully wrong; and it seems to me of less consequence to teach my boys a lesson from the book—one lesson even in a whole week—than to try, with whatever of spiritual or bodily force I possess, to draw them from their evil ways. The subject of moral influence in the school-room is dwelt upon by learned men who address teachers' meetings, and in long articles in educational and religious works, but never yet have I been gratified by listening to a conversation of *teachers* in familiar discourse on this subject.

J. Because, my dear enthusiastic, erratic friend, *they* work silently, and don't make a fuss about it.

H. Indeed! Then how will you account for it that a certain teacher smiled at me with pitying contempt, as I thought, because I expressed my opinion of the condition of the boys. Ah, excuse me. It must have been because he thought I should work and not talk. Seriously, Jane, when we look around not only in our neighborhood and city, but when we read reports from other cities, items from the newspapers, statistics of crime everywhere, it is alarming to notice how many offenders are *boys*, and these sometimes so young as to make the story of their crimes almost incredible. To me this fact is very suggestive. It seems to demand a more thorough training of heart, if such can be, and the person or persons undertaking the task of recalling our "street boys" to virtue or even decency deserves a throne, and monument, and a life long exemption from earthly ailments, for he will have enough of unearthly characters to deal with.

J. Not unearthly, you don't mean that.

H. Yes, in the sense of hideous.

J. Oh, Helen, you are certainly too severe. Do you really think that no one needs reformation but boys? Perhaps you never heard of an unruly girl in school.

H. Girls are generally quiet in school hours, and that is more than I can say of their brothers.

J. But girls are meddlesome, peevish, and treacherous—caressing the teacher one day, making faces at her and ridiculing her the next.

H. Girls are cleanly, apt to work, and can sing sweetly.

J. Boys are handsome, unaffected, don't pout, and they are constant in their attachments.

H. Unlike their elder brother, man.

J. How pleasant to have for one's friend a healthful work-loving, fun-loving, danger-defying, truth-loving, spirited, ambitious boy! Witness Tom Brown, for an example. Such an acquaintance is a stand-by, a help, worth a dozen or two mincing, affected girls—and even the mischievous ones are good to drive away the blues. Listen to what a friend of mine wrote in her diary: * * * "School is a fresh relief to the feelings after a season of despondency. Sometimes I scarcely know whether I am sane or crazy, but at school I know that all is natural. No morbid souls there. My rough, bad, spirited, healthy, *palpable* boys!"

H. Palpable! She must have meant their fists when she wrote that. But let us change the subject. It is growing late, I see Miss Blank has dismissed her industrious students. Really, I think it was a great mistake, my trying to teach.

J. I wish I could instill a little reason into your dissatisfied thoughts. Is every teacher self-content, self-conscious, and *per-*

fectly at rest, concerning her little subjects? However, if there is one power that you lack and shirk, it is as the Latin maxim says: *Suaviter in modo*; in English, *Love*. Don't you rather reverse the order, and substitute, *Fortiter in modo suaviter in re*—if that is allowable Latin—and at the same time that you are inwardly admiring an intelligent, fair-browed, little fellow, you are doing violence to his feelings and your own by a hasty, impatient demeanor.

H. Jane, I do believe you want to make me ashamed of myself. What you have just said may be right, but I will never take back my opinion of the necessity for some great and powerful change in the government of children till I behold them conducting themselves as civilized humanity should.

J. The reform must begin with their parents. As family government is conducted just now, it seems to me there is some truth in that parody in the famous line—

> "Delightful task! to teach the young idea how to shoot."

Some unhappy pedagogue changed it to—

> "Degrading thought! to be each sniveling blockhead's parent's slave."

Half the time young children are sent to school to be "out of the way", and others are so petted and spoiled at home that mothers keep a vigilant eye upon their treatment at school lest it should be too severe; so, between the careless ones who know nothing, and the precise ones who think they know everything, it is no wonder you look in vain for models.

H. This is not a new idea to me, but how is it to be carried out?

J. Popular opinion is influenced by the popular and ever-to-be-admired press, and indeed I think our educational works have already done much good in this respect.

H. But how about the ignorant who can not or will not read, or the foreigners who do not understand us.

J. Helen, you are a fanatic.

H. I am only anxious.

J. You magnify small offenses into crimes.

H. You never hear profanity, such as I have unwillingly listened to.

J. That can be cured.

H. I hope it can. But you imagine that I am looking only at the present, while I am thinking mainly of the time when these boys shall be citizens, and as such claiming their share in the government or misgovernment of our country; and if they act as political characters just now do, we may safely look for an overturning of law and order—a malformation of this once liberal republic.

J. Well, Helen, I'm no orator, or I might reply in fitting language to your speech. But, come, you are not the only one to bear this responsibility. Let us go home. You need some more cheering influence.

Miss Leedum goes up stairs for her bonnet and shawl, and while Miss Forcem arranges hers, she keeps thinking of the line,

> "Let love through all your actions run, and all your words be mild."

HE A'N'T; HE DON'T; ETC.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, O.

"It may be laid down as a general rule, that words most frequently employed are hastily and carelessly pronounced, and that, in inflected languages, they are, with very few exceptions, irregular in form. In this way often grows up a distinction between the written and the spoken languages, which, in some cases, is carried so far that the formal rules of pronunciation observed by the best speakers in conversation, and in reading or in set discourse, are so different as almost to amount to a difference of dialect, and while he who reads as he speaks would shock by the vulgarity, another, who speaks as he reads, would scarcely less offend the hearer by the pedantic formality of his enunciation. In English, a distinction of this sort is not obligatory, but tolerated, and it is very commonly practised, though, among educated persons, not to such an extent as in some of the Continental languages. Thus, *don't* is very commonly used for *do not*, and, by careless speakers, even for *does not; I'll* and *you'll, I'd* and *you'd*, for *I will, you will, I would* and *you would; isn't, arn't haven't*, and *won't*, for *is not, are not, have not*, and *will not*. Indeed, we too often hear, in the conversation of persons from whom we have a right to expect better things, such sad distortions of words as *haint* and *aint*, and I am sorry to say that Charles Lamb has even committed this last transgression in writing, in one of his familiar letters to Coleridge. So long as departures from grammatical propriety of speech are merely allowable colloquialisms, not recognized changes in the normal form of words, they come rather within the jurisdiction of social authority; they are questions of manner, like the set phrases of complimentary salutation, and not entitled to consideration as exemplifications of the law of progress and revolution to which all human language is subject. Such licenses of speech rest on no ascertainable principle. I shall, therefore, not inquire into their essential linguistic character, or the extent to which they may be indulged in without infringing the laws of good taste, and I will dismiss them with the simple remark that they are substantially corruptions of language, and therefore to be employed as sparingly as possible."—*Marsh's Lectures*, pp. 253–4–5.

"One word with regard to the colloquial contractions which I just now mentioned. We occasionally hear some made use of, which can not be defended. For instance, '*I ain't certain*', '*I ain't going.*' This latter, in the past tenses, degenerates still further into the mere vulgarism, '*I warn't going.*' This latter is heard *only* as a vulgarism; but the other two are very frequently used, even by highly educated persons. The main objection to them is that they are proscribed by usage; but exception may also be taken to them on their own account. A contraction must surely retain some trace of the resolved form from which it is abbreviated. What, then, is '*ain't?*' It can not be a contraction of '*am not.*' What '*arn't*' is contracted from is very plain; it once was '*are not,*' which, of course, can not be constructed with the first person singular. The only legitimate colloquial contraction of '*I am not,*' is '*I'm not*"; '*I'm not going*'; '*I'm not quite sure.*' The same way of contracting is used in the case of '*are not.*' It is usually contracted by attaching the verb to the personal pronoun, not by combining it with the negative particle. We say, '*You're not in time,*' not '*you arn't*'; '*they're not coming,*' not '*they arn't,*' or '*ain't.*'"—*The Queen's English* pp. 95–6.

"WO'N'T. A contraction for *would not,* used for *will not.*"—*Johnson's Quarto Dictionary,* Vol. II.

"WONT. A common contraction for *will not.* In New England, generally pronounced *wunt.*"—*Bartlett's Dictionary of Americanisms,* 1848.

Worcester adopts Johnson's explanation which is undoubtedly wrong.

Webster says it is "a contraction of *woll not,* that is, *will not.*"

This accounts for the long sound of *o* in *wo'n't*, and is the true explanation.

"AN'T, or AINT. A common abbreviation in colloquial language for *am not* and *are not*. It is often improperly used for *is not*. It is equally common in England."—*Bartlett.*

Worcester in his octavo dictionary quotes Smart as saying—

"A'N'T. A vulgar contraction for *am not*, *are not*, and *is not*." In his quarto he says, "A vulgar colloquial contraction for *am not*, *are not*, and sometimes *is not*."

"ĀN'T, in our vulgar dialect, as in the phrases I *ān't*, you *ān't*, he *ān't*, we *ān't*, etc., is undoubtedly a contraction of the Danish *er*, *ere*, the substantive verb, in the present tense of the indicative mode, and *not;* I *er-not*, we *ere-not*, he *er-not;* or of the Swedish *ær*, the same verb; infinitive *vara*, to be. These phrases are doubtless legitimate remains of the Gothic dialect."—*Webster.*

"*Ān't.* A colloquial contraction of *am not* or *are not*; as in the phrases *I ān't*, *we ān't*, *you ān't*, etc. *He ān't* follows either the analogy of the others, or is a corruption of *he is not*."—*Webster*, as modified by his editors.

"HAINT, for *have not*. A contraction much used in common conversation in New England."—*Bartlett.*

"*Hān't* (in England *hānt*). A vulgar contraction of *have not*, or *has not;* as, I *han't*, he *han't*, we *han't*."—*Webster.*

"DON'T. The proper colloquial contraction for *do not*, and which should therefore be used only in the first person singular and the plural. Yet we very often hear it used instead of *doesn't* for *does not;* as, 'He *don't* tell the truth.'"—*Bartlett.*

"In grave discourse, or in oratory, the adverb *not* is spoken as distinctly as other words; but, *ordinarily*, when placed before the nominative, it is rapidly slurred over in utterance and the *o* is not heard. In fact, it is *generally* (though inelegantly) contracted in familiar conversation, and joined to the auxiliary: as, IND. Don't they do it? Didn't they do it? Haven't they done it? Hadn't they done it? Shan't, *or* won't they do it? Won't they have done it? POT. Mayn't, can't, *or* mustn't they do it? Mightn't, couldn't, wouldn't, *or* shouldn't they do it? Mayn't can't, *or* mustn't they have done it? Mightn't, couldn't, wouldn't, *or* shouldn't they have done it?

"Well-educated people commonly utter their words with more distinctness and fullness than the vulgar, yet without adopting ordinarily the long-drawn syllables of poets and orators, or the solemn phraseology of preachers and prophets. Whatever may be thought of the grammatical propriety of such contractions as the foregoing, no one who has ever observed how the English language is usually spoken, will doubt their commonness, or antiquity. And it may be observed, that, in the use of these forms, the distinction of persons and numbers in the verb, is almost, if not entirely, dropped. Thus *don't* is used for *dost not* or *does not*, as properly as for *do not;* and, '*Thou can't* do it, or *shan't* do it,' is as good English as '*He can't* do it, or *shan't* do it.' "—*Goold Brown*.

The last sentence in the foregoing quotation, together with the following discussion, will exhibit the subject of contractions in its proper light and show in what respect Marsh, Alford, and Bartlett are wrong. My purpose is not to recommend contractions, but to give them a defence which does not often or readily occur to grammarians.

There are three modes of conjugating negatively *am*, *was*, *have*, *will*, and *do*, besides the full form. In the first, the adverb *not* is *alone* contracted; in the second, the verb *alone*; and in the third, both are contracted:

I am n't,	I 'm not,	I ā'n't,
Thou art n't,	Thou 'rt not,	Thou ā'n't,
He is n't,	He 's not,	He ā'n't,
We are n't,	We 're not,	We ā'n't,
You are n't,	You 're not,	You ā'n't,
They are n't.	They 're not.	They ā'n't.

I was n't,	Wanting.	I wa'n't,
Thou wast n't,	"	Thou wa'n't,
He was n't,	"	He wa'n't,
We were n't,	"	We wa'n't,
You were n't,	"	You wa'n't,
They were n't.	"	They wa'n't.

I have n't,	I 've not,	I hā'n't,
Thou hast n't,	Thou 'st not,	Thou hā'n't,
He has n't,	He 's not,	He hā'n't,
We have n't,	We 've not,	We hā'n't,
You have n't,	You 've not,	You hā'n't,
They have n't.	They 've not.	They hā'n't.

I will n't,	I 'll not,	I wō'n't,
Thou wilt n't,	Thou 'lt not,	Thou wō'n't,
He will n't,	He 'll not,	He wō'n't,
We will n't,	We 'll not,	We wō'n't,
You will n't,	You 'll not,	You wō'n't,
They will n't.	They 'll not.	They wō'n't.

I do n't,	**Wanting.**	I dō n't,
Thou dost n't,	"	Thou dō n't,
He does n't,	"	He dō n't,
We do n't,	"	We dō n't,
You do n't,	"	You dō n't,
They do n't.	"	They dō n't.

It should be carefully observed that the contractions *ā'*, *wa'*, *hā'*, and *wō* do not vary for either person or number. *Dō* is not a contraction of *do*, but arises from a change in the sound of *o* from *oo* to *ō*. *Dō* does not vary for either person or number. I claim that if *I ā'n't* or *we ā'n't* is correct, that *he a'n't* is equally correct. A reference to the Indo-European languages shows that ā' represents the vowel of the substantive verb. The Sanskrit of *am*, *art*, *is*, are *asmi*, *asi*, *asti;* in the plural *a* is also found but not initial. The old Greek forms of *am*, *art*, *is*, *are*, *are*, and *are*, are *emmi*, *essi*, *esti*, *eimes*, *este*, and *enti;* and the Lithuanian are *esmi*, *essi*, *esti*, *esme*, *este*, *esti*. For the forms of the substantive verb in Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Old Slavonic, Mœso-Gothic, Old Saxon, Icelandic, and Persian, see *Bopp's Comparative Grammar*, vol. II, pp. 608, 618, 635, 647–8, 669, 670; *Latham's Hand-Book of the English Language*, p. 250; *Anthon's Greek Prosody*, p. 259; *Fowler's Eng. Grammar*, p. 269 (taken from Latham); *Harrison's Latin Grammar*, p. 229; *Winning's Comparative Philology*, p. 72; *Encyclopædia Britannica*, vol. xvii, p. 531.

HOW TO TEACH SPELLING.

BY H. B. WILSON.

How shall spelling be taught? I need not reiterate the oft-repeated assertion, that this receives too little attention. If any teacher doubts it, let him examine his scholars. Select fifty words, and, with proper precautions that the examination is in all respects fair and just, require your pupils to write them, then take the examination papers and see the result. No matter how much previous experience you may have had, you will be astonished at the deficiency which the experiment will reveal. If you are not, your experience will differ from mine. I have examined in this way scholars sixteen or eighteen years of age, and even teachers in teachers' institutes who have spent their lives in the school-room, and I have often found from thirty to fifty mistakes in spelling seventy-five words. I have examined those who could show me the diploma of some institution, and have not unfrequently found them unable to spell five out of ten of the more difficult words in Webster's spelling-book. Let teachers, if they think this defect is exaggerated, try the experiment in their own schools. Try it faithfully, not for the purpose of convincing your scholars and yourself that they can spell well, but with the intention to reveal, as clearly as possible, the amount of deficiency which really exists.

For many years spelling, in the schools under my care, has received special attention. I have experimented faithfully to find the best methods of teaching it, and I know that much which is said about it comes from mere theorists—those who do not begin to know the magnitude of the work which is to be done. All teachers of experience, however, will agree with me in the opinion, that accuracy in spelling is more difficult to be obtained than in any other branch. Many theories have been suggested in regard to it, and the tendency now is to substitute written for oral spelling. Some teachers discard the spelling-book, and require the scholars to spell only the words of their reading lessons, and scarcely any, at least among those of my acquaintances, devote that amount of time to spelling which is necessary to insure accuracy.

The course which I have pursued, and which I would recommend, embraces both oral and written methods. Every pupil on entering school, should be required to have a slate, and as soon as he begins to combine letters into words in reading, his oral and written, or rather printed spelling, should begin. The words which he is to spell must be printed on his slate, and brought to the recitation for inspection. Spelling is taught not less by the eye than by the ear, and by these printing exercises the child at an early age becomes familiar with the form and appearance of words. This exercise should not be an occasional one. It must be as regular as the recitation itself. The next point is the degree of thoroughness which shall be required. This can, in the case of young children, be carried to the very maximum. In most of the schools of this State, the National Readers and Speller are in use. In the spelling-tables, in the First Reader, there are about nine hundred different words. In those of the Second Reader, there are about seventeen hundred. No class should be allowed to pass out of the First Reader, unless able to spell accurately all the words in it. The examination should be conducted in the most thorough manner. In our graded schools it should be conducted by the superintendent, and from two hundred to three hundred of the most difficult words should be pronounced to the class for oral spelling. These words should not merely be pronounced once, but the same word should be repeated again and again, without indication from the examiner as to its having been spelled correctly. It is very generally the custom to re-pronounce only the misspelled words. There is manifest injustice in this, for the second scholar has the advantage of the previous one's mistake. The re-pronouncing of a word should be no indication of previous correct or incorrect spelling. This should be avoided not only as being unjust, but because such method can never induce accuracy. Words having different combinations of letters, but a similar pronunciation, should be given out in connection. In a word, make the examination as rigid as possible, and you will, after a time, obtain all you could desire. In conferring with a distinguished educator on this point, the writer was informed that of seven classes in the primary schools of which he had charge, to which twelve hundred words were pronounced, during two weeks, but three words were misspelled. It is possible in primary schools to obtain most perfect accuracy in spelling. The same teacher above referred to, said, that with a very few exceptions he had not, for the past two years, allowed a scholar in the First or Second Readers to pass out of it, if on these examinations he has missed two words.

This obliges the teacher to resort to every method to test the scholar's knowledge. The attention should be called to all words of peculiar orthography. When the pupil passes out of the First Reader into the Second, the same course in oral and written spelling should continue, with this exception, that at this stage the scholars should begin to substitute written for printed characters. The same plan should be adopted to secure accuracy. The lessons should be recited, not so that the scholar *may* pass, if possible, but so that he *must* fail if he is not certain as to the whole. It is not always best to pronounce the words in the order of the book, but in such a manner as to bring two words having a similarity in pronunciation, but a difference in orthography, together. If you find one scholar not accurate, do not indicate it to the class, but try another and another. This not only secures thoroughness, but the plan commends itself to scholars by its exact justice. The common method of passing a word misspelled by one scholar, to another, is so unjust that, separate from its failure to produce accuracy, it should be discarded. The second scholar has two chances where the first has one. Very often there is but one point in the orthography of a word, which presents any difficulty; then the failure of the first scholar determines the point, and the second scholar has the credit of success, which accident and not study gave him. I recollect a case in point: A class of twelve were reciting, and when a failure was made, the word was passed to the next. The lesson was pronounced several times, and at its close seven scholars had failed. These were required to go to their seats and relearn their lesson. I asked the teacher to let me have the book. I then took each scholar separately, selecting those words which from their similarity in pronunciation would be most likely to produce mistakes, occasionally stopping the recitation of a scholar suddenly, and passing the word to another—no matter whether it had been correctly spelled or not. At the expiration of five minutes, I found there were but two who had not failed, some having missed two or three words. By a further trial, I found those two had the lesson thoroughly.

In our district schools, I think scholars should not take up the Spelling-Book until they enter the Third Reader. Different points should be assigned for examination, as, for example, when the pupils reach the thirty-fifth, the fiftieth, and the seventy-fifth page. At each advancing stage, the scholar should be held responsible for the previous ones. With the exception of the printing and writing exercises, oral spelling in the three lower grades of our city schools, and the lower classes in our district schools, or until the scholars reach the fiftieth page of the Spelling-Book, should be mostly relied upon. At this point, however, the usual daily recitations in this branch should be in writing, with, however, frequent oral spelling, especially in the form of constant reviews. On Friday of each week, especial time might be devoted to this exercise. It is impossible, by writing alone, to accomplish the amount of work needed in this department. In the higher classes, the writing should be conducted with more care. Each scholar should be required to have two small blank books, capable of containing about a thousand words. The daily lessons should be written in one of these, the words being pronounced by the teacher with great rapidity. The books should be then taken by the teacher and examined; the misspelled words marked and returned to the scholar, who should write them on the last page of the book. The second book should be an exact copy of the spelling in the first, but should be carefully written, and kept neat and clean. This serves several important purposes, but the one to which I now refer, is its value as a spelling exercise. This rewriting the misspelled word in its incorrect and its corrected form, imprints it upon the memory, and the practice of preserving these exercises for public examination, gives a very healthful stimulus to exertion. The recording the mistakes on the last page, also has a good effect. The teacher, the visitor, and the examiner, or the scholar himself, sees at a glance the number of words which he has missed, and also the very words themselves. It is an index of the faithfulness or unfaithfulness of the scholar, and stands as a constant commendation or reproof.—*Minn. Teacher.*

THE CLASS ROOM.

GEOMETRY—LESSON II.—LINES.

Notice the line I have drawn on the board. Have all parts of it the same direction? *No.* How many different directions has it? *Three.* At what points does it change its direction? *At B and C.* If a stick were made to take the directions of this line it must first be *broken*; so we call this a broken line. Draw a broken line which has two directions. How many times does it *change* its direction? *Once.* Draw a broken line whose parts have three different directions. How many changes of direction in this line? Draw a broken line with three *changes* of direction. How many *directions* has this line? Of how many parts does this line consist? At what points does the direction change?

I will now draw another line. How does this differ from the broken line? *It has no change of direction.* What kind of a line is it? *A straight line.* What kind of a line is a straight line? *A straight line is a line which has no changes of direction.* How long is this line? *About three feet.* If it were produced from one end of the board to the other, would it change its direction? *No.* Suppose it to pass through the wall and extend through the air for a mile, would it still have the same direction? *Yes.* You mean to say that, however far such a line extends, it has the same direction? *A straight line has the same direction throughout its whole extent.* Repeat in concert. Write. Draw a straight line. How can we do it? *By the use of a ruler.* Why? *Because the ruler has a straight edge, by following which we can make a* *straight mark.* I will take two points on the board A and B, and connect them by several lines thus; some of these lines are broken and some what you would call *crooked*, and one is straight. Now tell me how the straight line compares with the others? *It is the shortest.* Can we think of any line between A and B shorter than the straight line AB? *A straight line is the shortest distance between two points.* Repeat in concert. Write. Now how *many* straight lines may be drawn between A and B? *One.* More? *No.* Can we always draw one? *Yes.* Wherever A and B may be placed we can always draw a line between them, or think that one has been drawn. We see then that between any two points one straight line may be drawn and but one, and that line is the shortest distance between the points. Now look back to the broken line, and notice of what it is composed. *It is composed of straight lines.* Right. *A broken line is composed of straight lines.* Repeat in concert. Write. What is the smallest number of straight lines that can compose a broken line? *Two.* What the greatest? *There is no limit.* In a broken line there are always as many directions as there are straight lines.

I will now draw another kind of line? Is this a straight line? *No?* Why? *Because it changes its direction.* Well, a broken line changes its direction; is this a broken line? *No.* Why? *It is not composed of straight lines.* This is a *curve.* How often does it change its direction? JOHN: "*More times than you could count.*" JAMES: "*It changes all the time.*" At how many points does it change? *At every point.* What is a curve? *A curve is a line which changes its direction at every point.* Repeat. Write. Draw a curve. Do not think all curves are like this; there are more kinds than we can name. Draw several different curves.

What kind of lines are these? *Straight lines.* In what else beside straightness are they alike? *They have the same direction.* These are parallel lines. What are parallel lines? *Parallel lines are lines which have the same direction.* Repeat. Write. How far are these lines apart at A and A′? *About three inches.* At B and B′? *The same distance.* At C and C′? *The same.* What do you see about the distance of parallel lines? *That they are everywhere the same distance apart.* Yes: *Parallel lines are everywhere equally distant.* Repeat. Write. If so, can they ever meet? *No. Parallel lines can never meet, however far they be produced.* Repeat. Write. What do I mean by *produced?* (No answer.) Richard, take the board. Take a point C some distance from B, the end of AB. Now *produce* AB to the point C. Right. Class, what did he do? *He made the straight line AB longer.* Excused.

Marion, O. W. W.

"WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH."*

BY EX-GOVERNOR J. D. COX.

There has been much able discussion of late upon the merits of different courses of study, and upon the principles which ought to determine us in selecting a *curriculum* for the education of our youth, especially in the higher schools and colleges of the country.

Among the more noteworthy essays which the debate has produced, is a series of articles by Herbert Spencer, commencing with one entitled "What knowledge is of most worth." The vigorous style of this writer and the considerable reputation as a philosopher which he enjoys, have given wide influence to his opinions in regard to the principles which lie at the bottom of all true efforts in education. He has, besides, given an air of system to his examination, and classified the activities of human life and the ends at which education should aim, under so few heads as to make his argument a taking one if we give it only a superficial examination; whilst the cleverness with which he has arrayed the considerations which may be made to support his theories, makes it peculiarly well adapted to mislead those who are upon the threshold of their education, and to inspire them with an unjust contempt for the studies which have hitherto had a large place in our institutions of learning.

I do not propose to discuss the details of a proper course of study, nor even to enter into the general debate as to the relative worth of linguistic and scientific studies. Were I to attempt it, I could do little more than borrow from the admirable address of Stuart Mill before the University at Aberdeen, which, for its characteristic lucidity of statement and convincing presentation of the values of different branches of learning, deserves to be in the hands of every student and intelligent friend of education. My object is rather to imitate Mr. Spencer's effort to get back of the question of specific studies, and to discover, if possible, the principles which may enable us to answer his question, "What knowledge is of most worth?" The scope of my plan will, without involving a formal review of the essays to which I have referred, properly include an examination of some of his more fundamental propositions, and an inquiry into the legitimacy of his deductions.

When we ask the relative worth of various kinds of knowledge, we necessarily assume some standard of value or utility by which we test our answers to the question. The purpose or end of the knowledge must be determined before we judge whether it be of much or little use in that regard. The knowledge which would be of great use in trapping beaver, might be of no worth in coal mining. Knowledge of music would be of no value in building a house, unless some one could revive Orpheus' secret, and make the trees dance after his lute and build themselves into a human habitation. Knowledge of banking would be of no use in navigating a ship, nor would Bowditch's navigator be a guide in railroading. Our question, then, must be answered, American fashion, by asking another, viz: "Of most worth for what purpose?" What end have we in view and what aim have we, when we ask the relative value of knowledge?

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* An Address delivered before the Alumni of Oberlin College, August 4, 1868.

Spencer has stated this end in a way that in itself would not be objectionable, when he says that it is "to live completely." Indeed, if the full meaning of the phrase be given it, and a "complete life" be made to include all that belongs to the ideal of a noble and perfected existence, I should accept the statement, and say that the end and object of all education had been well expressed. When we look further into the essay we are considering, however, and notice the application the author makes of his principle, and his classification of the human activities into which life is divided, and to which education is to be applied, we find our ideal of a "complete life" very far from being realized, and a low standard of utility, with a narrow reach and purpose, taking the place of the high conception we had been led to expect. A well-developed physical being is all that would seem to be properly included in his description; and the culture, which directly aims at ennobling and expanding the human soul, is either unprovided for, or thrust into so subordinate and unimportant a place as to seem practically ignored. It is true that, by a happy inconsistency which those who read Spencer's books can not fail to notice frequently, he is often better than his own principles; but a foundation laid with the apparent care which is evident in his introductory essay, will, from the systematic form into which it is thrown, remain more firmly fixed in the reader's mind than any tacit admissions or conclusions inconsistent with it, and it is, therefore, only the more necessary to examine carefully this basis, and to expose what we may deem its errors.

Spencer declares the following to be an arrangement, "*in the order of their importance*, of the leading kinds of activity which constitute human life": 1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation. 2. Those activities which, by securing the necessaries of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation. 3. Those activities which have for their aim the rearing and discipline of offspring. 4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations. 5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.

The education which prepares for each of these several activities is estimated in importance according to the same relative order, and the classification is made the foundation of the author's whole theory.

If it were only claimed that this is a chronological arrangement, showing the order, *in time*, in which the activities of man are developed and his knowledge acquired, although it would not even then be strictly true, it might be admitted as to a portion of the classes, and the error contained in the proposition would not lead to michievous consequences; but when the assertion is made that the value and importance of education in these several respects are in the order of the classification given; "that these divisions," to use the author's language, "subordinate one another in the foregoing order, because the corresponding divisions of life make one another possible in that order," the conclusion seem to me to be one which is at variance with every true idea of education.

In arranging a scheme of study according to the value and importance different departments of it, the most important are not those which must nec sarily come first. The learning of the A B C must precede the reading books; but it would be a mere perversion of the use of language to say t therefore, the study of the alphabet is of the most value in literary education. In accomplishing all valuable results and reaching desirable ends, successive steps must necessarily be taken, and the end could never be reached but by taking each in its turn. But these means, however necessary, are necessary only as means, and it is absurd to say that they are more important than the end for which alone they are devised and used. Yet this is precisely Spencer's argument. Because life and the procuring of the necessaries of life must precede the cultivation of the mind in every thing that is true, beautiful, and good, therefore the knowledge which we may possess in common with the lowest brutes that perish, namely, that of the means of sustaining mere physical existence, is most valuable and important, and should have the most prominent place in our plans of education. The statement of the doctrine is its own refutation.

It is noticeable that such a scheme leaves no room for the larger kind of utility which estimates knowledge of any sort as valuable for its own sake—which recognizes in the consciousness of mental or moral growth the fullest possible justification of the labor by which such growth was attained. A low calculation of its use for mere physical and material advantages is all that is provided for, unless the last and least important of the five divisions, that which refers to the "leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings," may be regarded as leaving a place for the cultivation of knowledge because it is ennobling, purifying, and exalting in its tendencies. If science of any kind is of use in procuring the necessaries of life, its worth as science is treated as nothing compared with the bread which it assists in obtaining. The first and most important divisions of knowledge are declared to be such as tend to the preservation of life, because mere physical support has been assigned the like preëminence in the scale of human activities. Thus the Scripture is reversed, and Christ's injunction to "take no thought what ye shall eat" is supplanted by the doctrine that meat and raiment are the most important of all things, and are to have the chief place in our thoughts and studies.

But before entering further into an examination of the consequences of such a theory, let us return to the starting place and endeavor to obtain clear ideas of the "complete life" which we should aim at, and which our education should directly tend to produce.

Every rational being before whose sight the image of an ideal man has once been exhibited, gets by the mere contemplation of it an appreciation, more or less adequate, of its nobleness and attractiveness, and ever afterward the voice of conscience within him urges him to make his own character and life accord with that model. Whatever be our philosophical theories, we must admit the fact to be that the idea in morals, in intellect, and in art is so related to our faculties that our approval of it and our pleasure in it are inevitable, and that from the time of our perceiving and comprehending it, it somehow becomes to us a law governing our judgment of ourselves; and we approve or condemn our own conduct, our intellectual culture, and our taste, as these harmonize or are discordant with this standard which reason sets up within us. It is not necessary for our present purpose to go behind the fact or to sound the deep mystery of the philosophy of this law. It is enough to recognize the truth that our minds are actually so constituted, that the ideal in each of the three realms I have named, commands our admiration and homage, if we will only gaze upon its perfections, and allow its beauties to have their natural and legitimate effect upon us.

Thus, in art, you may take a youth bred in the backwoods, who has never seen a picture better than a coarsely daubed lithograph, or a statue superior to the wooden Indian which answers for a village tobacconist's sign, yet you may place him before the masterpieces of the world's great artists with absolute assurance that if he will only gaze intelligently upon them and compare them with what he has formerly seen, a sense of their noble beauty will gradually penetrate his mind, and his standard of taste gradually but infallibly approximate to that which the civilized world has reached through its highest cultivation. He may be hardly conscious of the change as it goes on within him, but after becoming familiar with lovely forms and exquisite coloring, he will be amazed that he could ever have derived gratification from the rude efforts in art which charmed his boyish and uncultivated fancy. In different persons this process may vary in rapidity, but it is the same in character, and we test the healthiness of the mental organization by the certainty of the result. If we find at the first experiment that the mind does not respond to the beauties placed before it, we only say, "Look again, study what you see, and the revelation of glory is sure to come."

In the same way, moral beauty is its own criterion, and when made known to us, becomes evermore the standard of our self-judgment and the test of our conscience. In this case, as in the other, it is not necessary for our purpose to inquire why an act is morally beautiful or noble; it is enough that the healthy mind recognizes it as such. It may be that its beauty depends upon its perceived harmony with the universal order of things. That reason shows it to accord with the good of all sentient beings; that the Creator has given us a moral sense which perceives rectitude as the sight perceives color; or that the fiat of God has declared the right so that no finite being can dispute it. All these, and other theories, we may safely leave to the discussion of the various schools in ethics, of which they are the shibboleths. It is enough for us to know and acknowledge the fact that as our æsthetic taste in art learns to recognize beauty of form and color, so our moral perceptions by gazing upon moral beauties certainly come to recognize the charm of charity, the nobility of justice, and the loveliness of love. In this regard, also, an ideal of life and conduct grows up from our experience and observation, and becomes the goal of all our efforts at self-development, and the criterion by which we determine the worth of all moral education.

So, likewise, there is a purely intellectual ideal, a standard of intellectual culture, a conception of fully developed mental power which is the model of the mental man, and is more or less clearly defined in the mind of every intelligent person. It is our notion of what is possible for such beings as ourselves, and bears a similar relation to the actual human minds we know to that which the Apollo Belvidere and the Venus of Milo bear to the bodies of the actual men and women about us. It is an ideal in which strength of reason, keenness and quickness of perception, logical analysis, delicacy of discrimination, sagacity of inductive generalization, all combine to unite the best powers of all the greatest intellects into one perfect and symmetric whole.

The combination of these three ideals of what is possible in the several departments of intellect, of morals, and of art, makes the *ideal man* differing from our conception of the Deity only in being finite whilst He is infinite. To form this conception of a perfect being of our own nature is the peculiar privilege of rational beings. Earnestly and diligently to work our way toward a realization of it, letting our zeal in the struggle grow by what it feeds upon, and being satisfied with the work of no day which has not helped us in our approximation to the perfection we covet, this is to lead a "complete life." How best to accomplish this, how to reduce to a minimum the obstacles which the belittling cares of this world and the necessities of a mere struggle for life interpose, how to make the ordinary labors of business conduce to the end we seek and become part of the development and growth we long for,—this is the work of education, stated in its broadest form.

It will be seen at once, that if I am right in my conception of a complete life, and of education as an instrument in the means of attaining it, the order of importance in the several classes of knowledge stated by Mr. Spencer is nearly reversed. It is the ideal in religion, morals, intelligence, art, remanded by him to the fifth and lowest place in the scale of values as being only the occupation of leisure hours, which we advance to the highest position and make the sublime end for which the rest are only means and instruments. If to eat and drink and then die were the whole of man, his existence would have no more worth than that of a brute. On the hypothesis that no higher object is proposed to human effort than to get the most out of physical life while it lasts, it would be hard to show any sacredness attaching to man's life, and a Chinese passive indifference to death would be the part of wisdom. Why need we care whether we live or our neighbors live, if the simple support of life be the most important of all our activities and the thing most worthy of our study and thought? Our sympathies may revolt against the wanton infliction of pain, even upon an insect; but we can not feel that it is an appreciable loss to the universe if a worm dies out of it. Just in proportion as we lower the standard of human career and lose sight of the ennobling parts of it, as we ignore the differences between man's higher life and that which is merely animal, we also diminish the force of all reasons which make charity, benevolence, and neighborly help a duty we owe to the suffering and the needy. It is in view of the possibilities that may await the poorest and meanest of human souls that our consciences forbid us to look with indifference upon its destruction. In proportion as the purpose to live nobly dies out of a man, and vice, fraud, or any degrading tendency becomes the rule of his life, our concern for his existence dies out also, and the common idiom of our language expresses the natural sentiment of our hearts, and we call him a worthless fellow.

It is related of Talleyrand that when a person was excusing some petty offense with the common apology, "One must live, you know," he replied with his inimitable irony, "I confess I do not see the necessity." The caustic Frenchman's annihilating answer to the poor scamp had wisdom as well as wit in it. Once confess that your rule of life is to prey upon others, or even that want shall be regarded an excuse for departure from a noble law of right, and the sooner the world is rid of you the better. No sympathy need be wasted upon him who makes such an admission of his failure to understand the career for which he was created. The help that may be given him is not proffered for any present worth in his existence, but for the hope that reason and truth will yet assert themselves, and a return to better ways justify the charity. When vice and crime go so far that a return seems hopeless, we put the offender out of the way in a solitary dungeon, or in last resort the gallows rids the world of an enemy and a nuisance.

It is often objected that such views of an ideal life as those I have been trying to draw are mere student's dreams—vague visions, which we may amuse ourselves with in contemplative hours, but which are not the stuff that practical life is made of; consequently, that a practical education must be modeled upon far different rules from any that can be drawn from such considerations.

I wish to come to close quarters with precisely such objections, and affirm that the only truly practical life, and therefore the only truly practical education, is that which is based upon the truest ideal; that between the two there is not only no antagonism, but the most perfect harmony and accord. The ideal is the law of crystalization, which, were all obstructions removed, would form each mineral into its own peculiar and perfect geometric shape. The practical is the result of the operation of this law in the midst of conflicting and varying pressures, and upon materials more or less mixed and impure. The law, however abnormal or amorphic may be the forms before us, has still been operative, and we shall only comprehend the history of the stones we tread upon when we assume this law as the constant force striving to develop itself throughout the whole formative period of the mineral's existence. So there is in each tree a law of growth in accordance with which each cell has been formed and deposited in its place. What interferences may have occurred from wind and storm, what deficient growth from lack of light or nourishment, what worms may have gnawed at the heart, what limbs may have been pruned away, we may not know. All these things have perhaps operated together to prevent the realization of the ideal tree, perfect in structure, in vigor, and in beauty. But it will not do to deny the existence of the law itself, or to refuse to recognize the truth that without it there could be no tree at all—only a dead mass of matter without organization, vitality, or growth.

The analogy applies with great force to the development of the human mind in each of the three directions of its growth. The true law is the realization of the ideal; the practical question is how to approximate this most closely in the midst of the actual circumstances of life. More than this, the impulse to obey the law, the perception at once of its beauty and its obligatoriness, is found in fact, as I have already said, in every human breast. It may never have been analyzed or distinctly stated in the form of a philosophical proposition; it may not even be clearly apprehended and be only a vague groping after something higher and better; it may seem to operate only casually and at intervals; but there it is, the natural revelation of his destiny to man, creating discontent with his present condition, making him rejoice when he has stumbled forward a single step and gotten a new view of beauty or of truth, forcing him to condemn himself when he has departed from the highest sense of duty yet known to him, and, though he have no better revelation, and be a mere heathen, leaving him, as St. Paul has said, "without excuse."

It is curious to observe the manifestations of this law in the commonest experiences of life. We need not refer to the recognition of the laws of common morality, without which society would be impossible; but may take examples in another department of culture where the advocates of mere utility would be puzzled to find any advantage, in their sense of the term, in the tribute which all men pay to the beautiful. It may seem absurd to say that the same desire to realize the ideal which would make a Raphael paint his Madonnas, makes an ignorant and untutored teamster love to adorn his mules' heads with gay tassels,—and yet it is substantially true. There is no sphere in life so humble, no labor so continuous or wearying, no occupation so purely industrial, that men and women in it will not gladly add to its toil for the gratification of paying some tribute to beauty in its performance. The very implements of labor are adorned, and from the rude painting of the beam of a plow to the fancy brass mountings of a locomotive engine, everywhere some place is found for human nature to add something for the sake of taste, where the general design seemed wholly devoted to the most rigid idea of use. Beauty will not consent to be thrust into the narrow corner of men's leisure hours, where Spencer's philosophy would put her, but insists that everywhere along our most wearisome paths we should place little shrines where we may cast some votive-offering in passing. The sailor delights in the carved and gilt billet head of his ship, or glances with pleasure at a gilded ball placed above his main truck where the very hight from which it gleams down upon him like a star awakens thoughts that mount upward in his own soul. He loves to see the bright-colored pennants flying, and to dress his vessel with them, as he would see his sweetheart bedecked with ribbons. The most practical, matter-of-fact merchant gladly adds large sums to the cost of his warehouse or shop for the sake of fine architecture and sculptured ornament, and whether he does it to gratify his own taste or to attract that of his customer, it is equally a proof of the persistence with which beauty-worship obtrudes itself into and insists upon elevating and ennobling that which seems most foreign to it. The fact that, amongst uncivilized or uncultivated men, taste often takes on grotesque or bizarre forms, as in the savage's tattooing of his body, does not prove that beauty is to be despised, nor that the tendency even in the savage is not an elevating one. Rude and elementary as it may be in form, it is, nevertheless, the germ out of which all culture in art must grow. The pleasure in mere contrast of bright colors, and the perception of the grace of curved lines, will, in time, and with the general expansion of the mind, become an appreciation and love of true art, as certainly as the canoe will grow into the steamship, and barbarous superstitions into lofty systems of philosophy.

[*To be Continued.*]

EDUCATION makes a man a more intelligent shoemaker, but not by teaching him how to make shoes.—*Mill.*

School Officers' Department.

SUPT. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, officially recommends that one day of each institute, to be called Directors' Day, be set apart for exercises which have a special bearing on the duties of school directors. He suggests that this day be designated in the calls for the institute, and that special efforts be made to induce directors to be present. We would earnestly commend this suggestion to those who have the management of institutes in Ohio. The advantages that will result from such an arrangement, are obvious. Let it be tried.

SCHOOL REGULATIONS.

We have frequently reminded township boards of education of their duty to prescribe rules and regulations for the government of the schools under their control, and we are pleased to know that this matter is receiving increased attention. But this duty may be easily overdone, and this is always the case when rules are adopted which relate to methods and details of teaching and governing. Such rules are almost sure to trammel teachers and lessen their success. Teachers know, or ought to know, what methods they can use most successfully, and they should be left free to adopt such methods. Moreover, few school boards or directors are competent to direct teachers in matters strictly professional, and the attempt to do so is an assumption of teaching wisdom as unjust as it is mischievous. Persons following any pursuit ought to know more about its practical details than those whose attention is directed in other channels. This is certainly true of farmers, carpenters, blacksmiths and tailors, and it ought to be true of teachers. We think it is.

We do not object to general rules requiring teachers to protect school property from injury, to preserve good order within the school-rooms, to control the conduct of pupils on the school premises, to keep an accurate record of all school statistics required by law, etc., etc. Such rules sustain the teacher's authority, and assist instead of trammeling him. What we wish to discountenance is the adoption of rules prescribing or forbidding certain punishments for school offenses, detailing methods of teaching the different branches, etc. Instances of such unwise legislation are too frequent to need specification. Local directors have forbidden composition exercises and declamation, the use of engraved copies in teaching writing, mental exercises in teaching arithmetic, the use of slates by small pupils, etc. Such regulations are an interference with what belongs to the teacher, and may best be left to his direction—and this is true even when the thing required or forbidden is in itself eminently wise.

SCHOOL VISITATION BY DIRECTORS.

The duty of visiting the schools is considered one of the most important duties that directors have to discharge in the administration of the system. The law makes the duty imperative, and no person should accept the office of school director unless he is willing to perform it. When well done, its effect is always to make the schools more efficient. It encourages good teachers and exposes poor ones. It stimulates pupils in their studies. It enables directors to ascertain the exact condition of the schools, school-houses, and school-grounds. On the whole, so high a value does the Department set upon the local supervision of the schools, that it always expects to find the schools of districts which are regularly and systematically visited by boards of directors, according to the provisions of law, other things being equal, *fifty per cent.* better than those of districts in which the schools are entirely neglected in this respect; and this estimate is made from personal observation in hundreds of districts.

The cost of tuition for the past school year in this State, was probably $3,500,000. This is an immense sum to be paid by our people in a single year for the education of their children. It should be made to do the greatest amount of good possible, and yet no doubt one-third of it, if not one-half, is wasted for want of proper local supervision of the schools. This waste is weakening and crippling the whole system. County superintendents visit the schools once or twice a year, and accomplish thereby much good; but their work should be supplemented by a more frequent, more detailed, local supervision. From their own statement of the fact, it is known here that the school directors in hundreds of districts wholly neglect the duty of school visitation, that in other hundreds it is but partially performed, and that in very few do the schools derive that profit from it which the law contemplates. It is a matter that needs reformation, and this article is written in the hope of attracting the attention of those who are most responsible for the neglect, and who must commence the reform. * * * * * * * * * *

Some directors will doubtless object to visiting the schools because they do not feel that they understand the work of teaching. It is not expected that school directors can make themselves experts in the business of teaching, but there is not a school director in the State who can not now form a tolerably correct judgment, upon visiting it, as to whether a school is working well or otherwise, and the visitation of a few schools, will, in a wonderful manner, increase his ability in that respect. Besides, no school director can honestly hold his office a day who feels that he does not understand how to discharge its plain duties, and has no disposition to learn.

Some directors may say also that, as they receive no pay for their services, they can not afford to spend time in visiting schools. Such persons should remember, however, that *no one is compelled to serve in the office of school director*, and any one who accepts the office should be willing to discharge its duties as well as he may be able.

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The matter under discussion is of so much importance that one other suggestion will be made, and that is, that good might result from the appointment by the board of each district of some one, willing and qualified to serve in such a capacity, from among the patrons of each school, to visit the school once a week or oftener, and report to the board. A person so appointed might be called a *School Visitor*, and be either a lady or a gentleman. The law makes no provision of this kind, but a board taking such action does not violate the law.—*Supt.* WICKERSHAM, *in Pa. Sch. Journal.*

THE LIGHTING OF SCHOOL-ROOMS.

There is every reason to believe that only a small proportion of diseased eyes is the result of inherited tendencies. Perhaps in nine cases out of ten it dates back to the first years of school life. Of the various causes tending to produce these evil results, defective illumination of the school-room is the most potent. A bad light compels the pupil to bring his eyes unnaturally close to book and slate, while he has to strain them to an equal degree in order to see distant maps and diagrams.

Of all the lights in a room, that striking the pupils full in the face is the worst. Not only are the eyes dazzled, and vision made difficult, but the blackboards and maps on the teacher's platform, being in shadow, increase the evil. A light coming from the right is nearly as objectionable, since it throws the shadow of the right hand upon the work. Cross lights are equally bad, because dazzling in their effects. The best light is that which falls from the left, and the next best one which comes from behind or above the pupils.

Another element is the hight from which the light comes. Should the source be too low, it is evident that the various rows of pupils will cast troublesome shadows upon their neighbors' desks. Windows should be high, and the main light received from the upper parts, since the higher the light the shorter the shadows, and the less chance that one pupil will obstruct the vision of another.

A considerable amount of the light in a room is the result of reflection from the walls. This fact renders their color a matter of no little importance. All dark colors, dark grey especially, absorb light freely, and should be avoided. On the other hand, the dazzling white of hard finish is not only injurious by its glare, but is furthermore in detestable taste. The best of all colors for walls is a cool, quiet, light grey, painted in panels of two tints, to avoid monotony.—*Mich. Teacher.*

MEETING CALLED.

The Executive Committee of the Ohio Teachers' Association is requested to meet in Columbus, on Monday, December 28, 1868, at 3 o'clock, in the office of the Hon. John A. Norris, State School Commissioner. The meeting of City and Town Superintendents will convene on Tuesday.

W. D. HENKLE,
Chairman of the Ex. Com. of the O. T. A.

Editorial Department.

WE give this month the first half of ex-Gov. Cox's excellent address on "*What Knowledge is of Most Worth*", to be followed next month by the concluding portion. We regret its division, but the desire to present a good variety of matter each month, seems to make it necessary. We propose to print a few copies of the address in a separate pamphlet, to accommodate those who may wish to secure it in a connected form.

We regard this address one of the ablest and most valuable educational papers which the present year has produced. Going back of special studies to the principles which determine their value, it clearly exposes the errors which underlie Herbert Spencer's noted essay on the same subject, and presents an unanswerable refutation of its fundamental propositions and deductions.

EFFECT OF EDUCATION ON MANUAL LABOR.

The *Cincinnati Gazette* recently devoted over a column to a consideration of this subject. The editorial was called out by the address of Hon. Harvey Rice before the Ohio Teachers' Association, at Dayton, an outline of which appeared in our September issue. After showing the inconsistency of some of Mr. Rice's statements, the editor adds:

> The subject of inquiry is, whether education will unfit the rising generation for hard labor, and who are going to do the hard labor when the public school system shall be so perfected that all shall be educated?
>
> For the theory at the bottom of the whole system is, that all shall have a complete education; complete, that is, as far as is furnished for any. On no other theory would it be justifiable to tax all to support the system. The full course will hold the pupil till seventeen or eighteen years of age. In the meantime, how will he acquire the capacity for hard work? Or will he then be willing to turn his hand to it? If all were thus educated, who would do the hard manual labor, which, in spite of all inventions, has still to be done by bone and muscle? Of course, the fact that only a small proportion do go through the public school course prevents such a consequence; but prevents it in a way that is not satisfactory to the friends of popular education; for it prevents by admitting the failure to educate the masses, which is the object and justification of the system.
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> It is said that boys who have acquired such an education as the full school course furnishes do not need to go at hard bodily labor; that they can do better. And so they can, so long as but a minor fraction go through the course. But suppose that all went through, who would do this work? We escape this difficulty by the fact that this system which provides education in the higher branches for all, and which plants itself on the principle that it is necessary to all, really carries but a small portion through the course; and, in the nature of things, can never carry but a small portion through. Thus we escape the consequences of the system by its failure. We may as well look at this fact, for we can not put it away. As population grows dense, the necessity for putting children early at work will increase, and the proportion who can enjoy the full course will be diminished. The nearer we keep the course to that which is available to the masses, the less will be its injustice, and the broader its foundation.

From this it appears that the complete education demanded by the theory at the bottom of our school system, unfits a person for manual labor; that were all to receive this complete education, there would be no one to do such manual labor, "which, in spite of all inventions, has still to be done"—a consequence which is only prevented by the failure of the system to give all the people this complete education.

We confess that this sort of logic puzzles us. To illustrate our difficulty, let us suppose that all the people in the State of Ohio above eighteen years of age to be in possession of a complete education, and all under eighteen to be in the process of receiving such an education. What must happen? A cessation of industry and universal starvation! For, "in spite of all inventions" hard manual labor "has still to be done", and somebody must do it. But, there is nobody to do manual labor. The plow is left in the furrow, the locomotive on the track, and the steamer at the wharf. The fires of our manufactories go out, and the hum of industry ceases!

The contemplation of such a catastrophe as this quite overcomes us. The very thought of three millions of people folding their hands, and dying of starvation and want, is frightful, and when we remember that a complete education has added to the ruder wants of the body numerous desires and cravings of the unsatisfied soul, the thought is appalling. We take refuge in the hope that such wants and sufferings will cause some of the people to fall back on bone and muscle. *Why not?* We can see nothing to prevent such a result except one of the premises of the *Gazette's* argument. This assumes that a complete education unfits a person for manual labor. We half suspect that this premise may not be sound. Let us examine it in the light of experience.

There was a time when laboring men were as a class unschooled—when they could neither read, nor write, nor cipher. The "minor fraction" of the people who were versed in these mysteries, filled the professions, served as clerks and book-keepers, kept store, and, in general, lived by their wits. It was proposed to establish common schools for the education of all the people. This proposition was met with the prediction that schooling would spoil children for manual labor; that if all should be educated, there would be left no "hewers of wood and drawers of water."

In spite of this alarming prophecy, common schools have been established, and education generally diffused among the people. What is the result? Fields are still plowed, harvests are garnered, and neither commerce nor manufactures languish for want of muscle. The swelling hum of human industry proclaims that the ability to read the Word of God and the newspaper neither unfits a person for bodily toil, nor leads him to forsake it for idleness. On the contrary, where education is most universal and thorough, there labor is most general, varied, and productive.

We can not see that either experience or reason justifies the fear that the universal diffusion of a higher education would abolish bodily toil. If all were completely educated, there would still be those who would engage in manual labor, since, under such circumstances, whether a man should earn his bread by his wits or his muscles could not be determined by the fact of his having studied geometry or Latin. The chief reason why educated people are not, as a class, engaged in manual labor, is because they are the "minor fraction" of the people, and hence can do better. When they can do no better, they will conjoin mind and muscle, and when they can not do this, they will try the virtue of muscle alone. An educated people have sinews as well as brains, and they will neither clothe themselves in rags nor live in hovels.

But, after all, is it the theory of the public school that an equally complete education is necessary to all classes? It is true that it makes provision for a higher education—not the highest—for all who are willing and able to receive it—thus meeting, as far as possible, the educational wants, not of a part, but of the entire community. The public school is not founded for the exclusive education of those who are to engage in manual labor. Its grand function is to prepare all classes for life's duties—to place man above his life's toil, and to provide him with the best and highest education possible.

While we thus take exception to the views of the *Gazette* on higher education in public schools, we indorse its position on the labor question. We fully concur in the statement that there are other causes besides education and labor-saving machinery which are leading mankind into hazardous ventures and into attempts to get a living by their wits. Education and invention both widen the demand for the products of labor, and thus increase the demand for labor itself. They are the foe of idleness and the friend of industry. Repugnance to physical labor has its source in causes outside of our schools and the inventive genius which they create and foster.

SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

We wish here to re-affirm all that we recently wrote respecting the paramount importance of right incentives in school instruction and management. It is not enough that the teacher secures diligence in study and good order. These results must be attained by an appeal to motives which quicken the child's sense of right and duty, and develop and nourish his higher moral nature. Neither a temporary interest in study nor external propriety of conduct compensates for the sacrifice of those higher principles of character which are of slow growth, but of abiding potency and value. It is an easy thing to hedge in a child's conduct by punishments and to urge him forward by artificial rewards, but when the restraining hedge is broken down and the temporary incitement is wanting, then there is seen the need of the power of self-guidance and self-impulsion—an indwelling monitor and a never-failing impulse. The most dangerous of transitions is that which carries a youth from the restraints of outward control to the non-restraints of a condition of untried liberty. The school life of the pupil should prepare him to be a self-governing being.

With these principles in mind let us try to distinguish between right and wrong incentives, and determine the relative worth of the former.

The first and most obvious classification of incentives is their separation into those which are *natural* and those which are *artificial*. In the former are included all those incentives which arise from the nature of the subject or are a natural result, not a necessary consequence, of full success or complete attainment. Among these are—

The joy of duty done.
The pleasure of self-control.
The inward reward of obedience.
The satisfaction of success.
The hope of future good.
The desire of knowledge.
The pleasure of its acquisition.
The satisfaction of overcoming difficulties.
The desire to excel.
The approval of conscience.
The approval of others.
The approval of God.

A little reflection will show that each of these incentives is the natural result or attendant of some duty or achievement of school life. The human soul is so constituted that every right act or possession brings with it a joy, a satisfaction, or an anticipation, and this is both a reward and an incitant. What is needed ordinarily to make this natural reward conscious and potent, is the assurance of success. The child submits his acts or acquisitions to the superior judgment of parent or teacher. If approved the full assurance of success brings a conscious satisfaction, joy, or hope. His reward is thus made sure. For the same reason men seek the approval of their peers or superiors. They desire to have their success tested by some standard without and above them. Such approval removes self-distrust, and makes rewards operative and satisfying, which might otherwise lack potency.

This view enables us to place among natural incentives all expressions of approval which furnish palpable evidence of success. Among these are—

The expressed approbation of the teacher.
The attainment of an assigned standard.

That these may be natural incentives, they must be signs or measures of actual success, and must be so awarded and so received. When they become the *end* of the pupil's efforts—when he ceases to look up from the shadow to the substance—then they are no longer natural rewards. In some of our graded schools the desire to reach high marks is the "ruling passion" of the pupils. They study for "per cents"; and *cram* for "per cents."

Among natural incentives we should probably also place—

An advancement in studies.
A promotion to higher classes.

These are the natural rewards of successful effort, and yet they may be so impressed on a school as to take the place of ultimate ends, thus becoming the most potent of artificial incentives, concealing or destroying those nobler rewards which border the path of duty.

All artificial rewards and punishments which are thrust between the pupil and the natural rewards of duty and acquisition, are *artificial incentives*. The prime characteristic of such incentives is, that they are artificial substitutes for those higher rewards which flow as consequences from all right action, and as such they become the present motive, the immediate end of effort and conduct. Instead of being the simple evidence of success, they are its alluring reward; instead of making natural rewards operative and potent, they weaken and conceal them.

Among artificial incentives may be included—

Prizes of pecuniary value, as books, medals, etc.

Immunities, as exemption from tasks, examinations, etc.

Privileges, as holidays, early dismissal from school, choice of seats, etc.

It is evident that neither of these three classes of rewards is a natural consequence of the pupil's success or attainments. They are all artificial and temporary substitutes for those rewards which are worthier and more enduring. But they do not lack potency. They may be so incorporated into a system of school management as to become its very life—the all-absorbing end of effort and desire.

It will be noticed that we have not included punishment among school incentives, natural or artificial. Its office is to reform, to restrain, and to urge the pupil forward. It does not incite; it impels. It is the reserved force which is brought up when incentives fail.

We have thus given a simple classification of those motives and influences which incite pupils to high attainments in study and conduct, and which are used as incentives in schools. The line which separates them is clearly defined, and their diverse character affords a basis for determining their relative worth and proper use.

This part of the subject will be considered in a subsequent article.

WHAT SHALL WE LEARN?

We have received a letter from a subscriber at Kansas City, Mo., complaining that the discussions of this subject in the MONTHLY relate too much to those who are able to take a regular and thorough course of instruction. He cites President Henkle's Inaugural Address at Dayton as an illustration, and adds:

> But there are those whose circumstances forbid their pursuing their studies at school beyond the district or central schools. More than half the teachers employed in the public schools belong to this class, and they are specially interested in the inquiry, "What shall we learn?" They desire to know what branches of study, possible to pursue in a limited time, will be of the greatest value to them. I hope you may give them light.

We answer briefly. The elementary branches are, of course, first to be studied, and among these we include drawing, vocal music, and language drills or composition. Respecting the course of study in arithmetic, geography, etc., the MONTHLY is certainly not silent. We need only say let the *elements* be thoroughly mastered. In place of "Higher Arithmetic" we would substitute elementary algebra, and in place of "Higher Geography", physical geography, to be followed by plane geometry, the elements of natural philosophy and chemistry, English composition, and, if possible, the elements of Latin—*not* Latin technics. One-third of the student's time for a year will suffice to attack and master one book of Cæsar and one book of Virgil.

MISCELLANY.

We have a few sets of the first six numbers of the Monthly for the current year, which we will mail at *fifty* cents a set. This affords our July subscribers an excellent opportunity to complete the volume. The numbers contain many valuable articles. New subscriptions may still begin with the October number. Subscription price, $1.50 a year.

We have printed 100 copies of the proceedings of the Dayton meeting, complete in a separate pamphlet. It will be sent by mail, prepaid, at 25 cents a copy. The edition was ordered by the Executive Committee, and is the property of the Ohio Teachers' Association.

We wish to make our pages a full record of educational progress, and, to this end, our friends in this and other States are requested to send us all intelligence of general interest. We wish specially to learn of all important changes in courses of study, classification and grading, methods of teaching and governing, and school regulations. We always like to hear of improvement in attendance and punctuality, and to learn by what measures the change has been effected. Send us the news.

Calling the Roll.—The time usually spent in calling the roll in schools, may be greatly reduced by giving each pupil a number, and requiring him to announce it in order. Silence indicates absence. The teacher speaks the number of the absent pupil to avoid mistakes. We have seen the roll of a large institute called in this way in a minute.

Slightly Mixed.—The following description of the Gulf Stream was recently given by an applicant for a position as teacher in the schools of one of our cities:

"The Gulf Stream is a branch of the Atlantic Ocean, and fire and smoke issue from it, and is situated east of Florida."

If any teacher in the rural districts can beat this, he should be sent to Barnum.

That Wheel Question.—The discussion of the wheel question reminds me of the way in which that wag, Charles II. of England, mystified the learned philosophers of the Royal Society, when he queried of them why it was that if you put a *live* fish in a pail of water, the pail will be no heavier than before. We have had in the Monthly various solutions of the problem, showing most satisfactorily why the wheel revolving round the other makes—some one says, one rotation; another, two. But not a word has been said about testing the question experimentally. I have done so, and have satisfied myself. Will some one else do likewise, and report? T. E. S.

Webster Abroad.—It is stated that, in the Alexandre case, tried in the Court of Exchequer at Westminster Hall, under purely English law, no dictionary but Webster's was quoted or alluded to. In his decision, the Lord Chief Baron pronounced this American dictionary "a work of the greatest learning, research, and ability." We also notice that in Richard Cobden's correspondence with the *London Times*, he appeals to Webster's Quarto as the tribunal "in pure and unquestionable English", to settle the meaning of the word "agrarian." These two instances show what our English jurists and scholars think of Webster.

High School Excursion.—The teachers and pupils of the Xenia High School, accompanied by a number of their friends, recently made an excursion to Columbus. The party, 136 in number, after visiting several of the public buildings and institutions, called at the high school where they witnessed interesting exercises in gymnastics and vocal music. They returned home much pleased with their visit.

COLUMBUS.—At the beginning of the school year there was a general change of principals in the public schools, caused by the transfer of Messrs. Paine, Mendenhall, and Brown to the high school, the resignation of the other grammar school principals, and the sad death by suicide of Mr. Clemen, principal of the German schools. The new principals are Messrs. C. Forney, of Coshocton, N. L. Hanson, of Sidney, A. Humphreys, of Lebanon, W. T. Wallace, of Greenville, Edwin O. Vaile, of Dayton, and W. H. Heitmann, of Cincinnati—all of whom, we learn, have made a successful and promising beginning. The high school has, with one exception, an entire new corps of teachers. Messrs. Westgate and Burr go to Europe to pursue theological studies, Miss Burr is married, Miss Gray has accepted a position in St. Louis at a salary of $1,000, and Miss Mary Renner, who died in August of consumption, has gone to her reward. The present lady assistants are Misses Morgan, Moodie, Newton, Phelps, and Thoma—the latter being teacher of French and German, and all being experienced and successful teachers. The course of study has been somewhat modified to make room for the modern languages. The school has opened well.

PIQUA.—A few weeks since Supt. Richardson received an appointment as principal of the Brownell Street School, Cleveland, but the Piqua board checkmated the Clevelanders by promptly raising his salary to $1,800. This wise action secured for the schools a continuance of efficient management. The high school now enrolls 105 pupils, the highest class numbering 20 and the lowest 45. Mr. R. is teaching a normal class of 35 members.

FINDLAY.—The new school building just completed, is one of the finest in the State. It is four stories high, neatly finished, and well arranged with respect to light, heat, and ventilation. The three lower stories are divided into school and recitation rooms, and in the fourth story is a large hall capable of seating nearly a thousand persons. The schools are under the supervision of Mr. E. Miller, who has acceptably filled the position for ten years. The high school has about one hundred pupils enrolled.

WASHINGTON.—Mr. J. J. Burns remains in charge of the public schools, the board having increased his salary from $650 to $800 for nine months. The course of study in the higher department includes Latin, algebra and geometry, and the more important of the natural sciences.

HIGGINSPORT.—The citizens of this enterprising town have voted to levy a tax for the erection of a new school house. The house is to be on the most approved plan, and is to cost from $15,000 to $17,000.

NEW HOLLAND.—W. W. Blondin, after trying mercantile business one year, has resumed teaching. He is in charge of the schools of New Holland—a position he once filled successfully for two years.

RIPLEY.—The public schools are under the supervision of R. C. Mitchell, a veteran teacher whom we are glad to welcome back to the profession. D. P. Pratt, a graduate of Marietta College, is in charge of the high school.

WILMINGTON.—A new school house, to cost about $25,000, is to be erected this year. The schools are in charge of C. W. Pritchard, and are making good progress.

HAMILTON COUNTY.—We are indebted to M. S. Turrill, of Cumminsville, for the names of twenty principals of graded schools outside of Cincinnati, with their salaries. We give the list: Geo. W. Nye, Walnut Hills, $1,900; A. B. Johnson, Avon-

dale, $1,900; Ed. Moulton, Glendale, $1,800; E. L. Miner, Lick Run, $1,500; D. W. Pennewell, Corryville, $1,200; S. G. Sterling, Clifton, $1,400; M. S. Turrill, Cumminsville, $1,200; J. M. Miller, Lockland, $1,200; E. Hoffman, Carthage, $1,000; J. D. Jones, Columbia, $900; J. N. Trimble, Pendleton, $1,000; G. W. Oyler, Storrs, $1,200; G. A. Clause, Cheviot, $1,000; E. N. Clopper, Camp Washington, $1,200; Theodore Edson, Madisonville, $800; W. R. Moore, Mt. Healthy, $1,000; Harriet Wilson, College Hill, $800; M. A. Francis, Harrison, $1,200; Geo. W. Weatherby, Reading, $1,000; C. B. Ruffin, Springdale, $800. The highest salary paid the teacher of an ungraded school is $75 per month; the lowest, $45 per month. ——Judge Noyes has appointed John Hancock, M. S. Turrill, and A. B. Johnson county school examiners, and the school revival in the county continues. The teachers' institute meets monthly at Curran & Kuhn's Academy.

WYANDOT COUNTY.—The report of the county examiners for 1866–7 shows that but four applicants for certificates were rejected. Last year sixty-five applicants were unsuccessful. Quite a number of non-resident pupils are attending the public schools of Upper Sandusky, and school interests in the county are generally improving.

CRAWFORD COUNTY.—There is no county in the State showing a more liberal school spirit than Crawford. Bucyrus is erecting a school building 208 feet in length—probably the largest in the West; Galion is completing a first-class building, 144 feet in length, and Crestline is erecting a fine building. The county teachers' institute has held a session annually for several years, and, under the direction of Messrs. Harper, Hartzler, and Foust, these institutes have been large and successful. The school boards are paying comparatively good wages, and are otherwise manifesting a commendable interest in school progress.

PERSONAL.—Supt. Hancock, of Cincinnati, is receiving a salary of $3,500.——Miss Fanny Wait has a salary of $900 as assistant teacher in the Dayton High School.——The Galion board has increased Supt. Hartzler's salary to $1,300, and Miss Swingly, formerly of the Bucyrus High School, has taken a similar position at Galion at a salary of $750.——Miss C. A. Stewart, of Newark, succeeds Miss R. J. Miller in the Bellefontaine High School.——Dr. W. C. Catlin has taken charge of the public schools of Sidney, O.; J. W. Van Sickle, of Cheshire Academy, Gallia county; W. H. Cole, of Delaware, of one of the public schools of Nashville, Tenn.; N. W. Vandervort, of the public schools of Sabina, O.; J. J. Osborn, of the graded school of Milford, O.—salary $100 a month; and W. A. Boles, of Lexington, Ky., of the public schools of Shelbyville, Ind.

HON. JOHN A. NORRIS was re-elected State Commissioner of Common Schools at the late October election. His second term of three years begins in February next. He is a faithful and efficient officer.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

LA GRANGE.—A four days' session of the Lorain County Institute was held at La Grange the first week of September—J. S. Metcalf, of Elyria, president. The exercises were under the direction of the writer, who was assisted in the work of instruction by Rev. Mr. Hartupee, and Prof. C. H. Churchill, of Oberlin. About one hundred teachers were present. The church in which the exercises were held, was crowded each evening, and the citizens manifested great pleasure in entertaining free all the teachers present. This is the sixth institute which we have attended in Lorain county. We received 32 subscribers.

PORTSMOUTH.—The Portsmouth *Tribune* says that the institute held in that city August 24th to 28th inclusive, was eminently a success. About one hundred teachers were in attendance, being two-thirds of the number in the county. The instructors were Supt. John Bolton, Prof. B. L. Lang, Prof. Robert Kidd, M. S. Campbell, and E. W. Smith. Addresses were delivered by Dr. J. Haas, Rev. W. H. Watts, Theodore Greiner, Capt. N. W. Evans, and Dr. Hempstead. Resolutions were passed commending the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY to all teachers, and thanking the citizens of Portsmouth for their hospitality in entertaining the teachers present. We received 10 subscribers. Scioto county is moving toward the front.

BUCYRUS.—The Crawford County Teachers' Institute held a five days' session at Bucyrus, opening Aug. 31. Sixty teachers were in attendance, and the exercises were interesting and profitable. The instructors were Messrs. Harper, Hartzler, and Foust, the superintendents respectively of the public schools of Bucyrus, Galion, and Crestline. Addresses were delivered by Messrs. Butterfield, Huntington, and Dr. Keller, of Bucyrus. The expenses of the institute were paid by the contributions of the teachers—the institute fund being left for use another year. The subject of county supervision was discussed by Messrs. Harper and Hartzler, and a resolution was passed approving of the measure. We received of S. R. Wax, secretary of the institute, a list of 30 subscribers.

BELLVILLE.—An interesting session of the Richland County Institute was held at Bellville, beginning Aug. 31st, and continuing five days. One hundred teachers were present. The instructors were Col. D. F. De Wolf, of Toledo, in arithmetic and reading, and Capt. Wm. Mitchell, of Columbus, in grammar and theory and practice. Evening addresses were given by Messrs. De Wolf and Mitchell, and Hon. M. May, of Mansfield. Mr. May's address was on "The Teacher and the Law." Among the resolutions passed we find the following:

> That we regard our profession as one that requires careful preparation on our part, and to this end we would heartily recommend to every teacher the perusal of some periodical treating on the subject of teaching. And knowing no one better adapted than the *Ohio Educational Monthly* to supply this need, we would call the attention of teachers to this fact.

This was backed up by 20 subscribers. It was voted to hold a two weeks' session next year.

SPRINGFIELD.—The institute held at Springfield the last two weeks of August, was the largest and best institute yet held in the county. The principal instructors were Capt. Wm. Mitchell, of Columbus, Prof. Edward Orton, of Antioch College, and Supt. J. F. Reinmund, of Springfield. We received 21 subscribers.

NEW PHILADELPHIA.—A teachers' institute was held at New Philadelphia, the five days ending Sept. 4th, under the direction of Supt. Ormsby, of Xenia, assisted by Prof. Kidd. Some sixty teachers were in attendance. The session was one of much interest. We received 11 subscribers.

IRONTON.—The Lawrence County Teachers' Institute opened Sept. 7th, and continued in session five days. The exercises consisted of lectures, recitations, examinations, and public evening addresses. The instructors were Prof. W. H. Young, Capt. Wm. Mitchell, Prof. Robert Kidd, Supt. A. C. Hirst, Prof. W. G. Williams, T. S. Greiner, and Miss Tillie Hopkins. We received from Dr. Moxley 27 subscribers, with the assurance that the institute was "*a good one.*"

MASSILLON.—The fourth annual session of the Stark County Teachers' Institute was held Sept. 21–25. Owing to the inclemency of the weather and the prevailing political excitement, the attendance of teachers was smaller than was expected and desired. Some seventy different teachers were present. The instructors were Supts. Worley and Kimball, E. E. White, D. M. Humer, and Mr. Henning. Evening lectures were delivered by Messrs, Kimball, Worley, and White. The MONTHLY received a good list of subscribers.

BOOK NOTICES.

GUYOT'S ELEMENTARY GEOGRAPHY FOR PRIMARY CLASSES. By MARY HOWE SMITH. New York: Charles Scribner & Co. Cleveland: Ingham & Bragg. 1868.

For teachers unskilled in oral methods, this is the best primary geography that we have yet seen.

CORNELL'S GRAMMAR-SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY. New Edition. By S. S. CORNELL. Large 4to. 122 pp. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1868.

The publishers have evidently spared no pains to adapt this work to classes pursuing a comprehensive course of geographical study, and to make it meet the demands of progressive teachers. Its typographical execution is unsurpassed—indeed, is unexceptionable. The maps are numerous, making together thirty-one pages of the book, and are engraved in the very best style. They are remarkably clear and beautiful.

The original plan and arrangement have been adhered to in the revision, but the modifications and additions in maps and text make it essentially a new work. Physical Geography is much more fully treated, and the map questions are considerably reduced. Opposite the "Reference Maps" of the different sections of the United States, the author presents the physical geography of each systematically arranged with descriptions of peculiar features. A few questions are added on the latitude of important places compared with those in other States and countries and on the leading railroad lines. This latter feature, peculiar to this book as far as we know, we regard as very important in this commercial age, and one that should not be neglected in this department of instruction. If we mistake not, this will prove a popular feature in the work.

The treatise upon map-drawing is mainly suggestive, recommending the use of lines of latitude and longitude as the basis of construction, and by giving a drawing of one grand division and two or three States, shows how it may be continued on the same plan in drawing other sections.

This work will attract attention as a compromise between extreme methods of geographical instruction.

MAYHEWS'S UNIVERSITY BOOK-KEEPING. A Treatise on Business and Accounts. By IRA MAYHEW, A.M. Boston: Nichols & Hall.

We have examined no work on Book-Keeping as comprehensive as this. It not only presents the principles of accounts, with numerous illustrative forms adapted to different kinds of business, but it also discusses, in a practical and thorough manner, the subjects of business correspondence and papers, commercial calculations, insurance, banking, commercial law, the philosophy and morals of business, etc. It is, in short, a complete and practical treatise, and is well adapted to the wants of business students. For a fuller description, see the publishers' advertisement.

SPENCERIAN COPY-BOOKS—NOS. 6, 7 & 9. New Edition. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1868.

We do not see how these books can be materially improved. The hand-writing is the model Spencerian; the copies are admirably arranged and beautifully engraved; and the printing and paper are both excellent.

THE LITTLE CHIEF IS advertised in this number. It deserves success.

TO PUBLISHERS AND MANUFACTURERS.

The attention of School Publishers and Manufacturers is called to the value of the *Ohio Educational Monthly* as an advertising medium. It occupies an important educational field, being taken not only in Ohio, but also, to a considerable extent, in the West and South. An edition of 4,000 copies is printed, and its subscribers include the active teachers and educators of the State and hundreds of members of Boards of Education. Great pains are taken to set up advertising pages so as to make them neat and attractive. In a word, the MONTHLY presents to advertisers all the advantages of a *first-class* educational journal.

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Poems, Stories, and Letters; Dialogues, Declamations, and Songs; Games, Charades, Enigmas, Puzzles, and Problems.

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WHAT THE PAPERS SAY.

THE LITTLE CHIEF.—It is a truism that the little folks intuitively know who their friends are at first sight. A perusal of the number of this " Visitor " before us, leads us to conclude that it possesses just these elements of juvenile acceptableness which all those other little folks' friends possess, and that a permanent place in their affections is thereby assured to it. It is less bellicose than its Western rival, were we to make a comparison touching it, and this is no insignificant feature of that department of literature, which should be *good-humored* from the editorial tripod down. We extend a little folks' greeting to it.—*Church Union, N. Y.*

THE last number of the " Little Chief " comes to us bright and charming as a spring lark. It will gladden the little folks like the singing of birds and the opening of flowers—an admirable juvenile monthly, with its delightful pictures and clear print. All the children ought to have it; it also freshens older hearts to look over its pages.—*Laporte Union.*

AGENTS WANTED in every School District, to whom the most liberal premiums will be given. Send ten cents for specimens and list of premiums, and begin your clubs before the field is preoccupied.

A. C. SHORTRIDGE, PUBLISHER,
INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

THE

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PRIMARY READING—PHONIC METHOD.

Several teachers who attended the late Cincinnati Normal Institute, have requested me to embody the substance of the lessons given and the lectures delivered on the above subject in the form of two or three articles; and the decided preference expressed for their insertion in the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, accounts for their appearance in this magazine.

There is no word which is so frequently and, at the same time, so vaguely and indefinitely used by modern educators as *method.* To the uninitiated it is involved in profound obscurity; and the person who introduces it into his discourse, whether appropriately or not, is at once supposed to be deeply conversant with the science and art of education.

Before we can rationally decide upon the best method of teaching any subject, we must understand clearly and distinctly what the word *method* implies. The question, What is method? naturally precedes the question, Which is the best method?

Method is an adaptation of means to an end—"a rational progress, a progress towards an end"—a procedure conducive to the attainment of the object desired. The relative value and importance of a method depends, consequently, upon its comparative adaptedness to secure the required end. The greater this adaptedness, the better the method. But what is the end proposed by education? Is it the acquisition of knowledge, or the development of mind? Is it the mere possession of facts, of truths, or intellectual cultivation? If the former, then the teacher will adopt that method which is best calculated to strengthen the memory. If the latter, then he will avail himself of that which, by intense exercise of the reasoning faculties, imparts to the mind a power of vigorous and protracted activity.

Education, however, proposes neither of these ends exclusively, So long as knowledge is necessary as a professional qualification, so long will the acquisition of knowledge, independent of its utility as a mental gymnastic, be one of the objects of education. But the paramount end of education is the symmetrical and harmonious development of the mind. To this, the possession of knowledge is subordinate, and to this it should be chiefly subservient. Such being the ends of education, it necessarily follows that, of a given number of methods, that is the best which affords the greatest facilities for acquiring a clear, distinct, and philosophical knowledge of a science, and at the same time conduces to the greatest degree of intellectual cultivation.

Having premised these brief remarks upon method in general, we will now proceed to discuss and exemplify that which more immediately forms the subject of this article.

It is a well known fact that the progress made in the modes of teaching reading has not been commensurate with that of other branches of primary education. Whilst the methods of teaching arithmetic, grammar, geography, etc., have made rapid advances, have in fact been completely revolutionized, reading has been comparatively neglected. The old Spelling Method which has existed from time immemorial is, with perhaps a few modifications, still in vogue in most schools. This is a matter of extreme regret, inasmuch as reading exercises at least as great an influence on mental training as does any other subject. It is, however, only in the school-room that this lack of progress exists. Theoretically, educators have long ago come to the conclusion that the old Spelling Method, being rather a hindrance than a help, should be discarded. In theory it has been superseded by the Phonic Method, which is at once more natural, and better calculated to enable pupils to overcome the difficulties of primary reading. That this merely theoretical progress has not to any appreciable extent been made available in the school-room, is chiefly attributable to the fact that no reader really practical in its nature, based on a thorough and exhaustive classification of the requisite materials, avoiding no difficulties but overcoming all, containing lessons systematically arranged and gradually developed and prepared on the principles of the Phonic Method, has hitherto been presented to the public.

The Phonic Method, as the derivation of the word phonic indicates, proposes to teach reading by means of the *sounds* of letters, ignoring altogether their names. This is its essential feature, constituting, in the language of logic, its differential quality, and distinguishing it as a method from all others. In addition to this feature, there are two others characteristic of the peculiar application of the method which we are now considering. These are, the use of complete sentences instead of disconnected words, and the employment of script characters at the commencement, instead of print. But of these we will treat in their order.

The reasons for teaching reading by means of the sounds of letters instead of their names, are so obvious as to render their enumeration superfluous. The remaining characteristics demand, however, from their novelty, some degree of notice.

It is of the utmost importance that children should, from the outset, be habituated to complete thought; and the *sentence* as its representative, should, consequently, be adopted from the very commencement. Again, it being an established fact that children are capable of being taught penmanship during the first period of their school life, and having regard to that valuable maxim which requires us to present to the pupils as few difficulties as possible at the same time, script characters should be employed for a while in preference to print. When, however, the pupils can recognize the script characters readily, and read fluently simple combinations of them, they may be introduced to print.

A course of instruction in primary reading should, we think, embrace first, a series of lessons containing the elements of reading, and prepared with the object of overcoming the difficulties of the study, *i. e.*, of teaching children to read; secondly, a series of lessons on the elements of thought, arranged in such a manner as to impress the corresponding grammatical form upon the pupil's mind; and thirdly, lessons on objects, showing how the various elements of thought are combined into a composition.

The following tabular form presents a connected view of what should, in our opinion, constitute the first series:

I. *Words of not more than three sounds.* Vowels combined with single consonants.

(*a*) Long vowels—meet, made, fine, note, tube.
(*b*) Short vowels—met, mad, fin, not, tub.
(*c*) Occasional vowels—all, car, oil, out, etc.

II. *Words of four or more sounds.* Vowels combined with compound consonants.

(*a*) Compound consonants at the end of words—and, ask.

(*b*) Compound consonants at the beginning of words—fly, true.

III. *Silent letters.*

(*a*) Silent vowels—read, wear, laid, build.

(*b*) Silent consonants—dumb, knot, write.

IV. *Substituted letters.*

(*a*) Substituted vowels—they, for, sew, her.

(*b*) Substituted consonants—rough, phrase.

Since all primary instruction naturally centers in object teaching, a course of primary reading should be based on object lessons. For the first three months of school life, the pupils should be well exercised in simple object lessons, commencing of course with things in the school-room, and gradually advancing from the near to the remote. In this way the elements of thought are developed, and correct expression cultivated. At the same time the pupils' minds are stored with knowledge, from which the teacher can collect materials for the reading exercises.

Having laid this foundation, we may next proceed to teach reading in the following manner. The teacher chooses a short simple sentence containing but one vowel sound, such as, We see; See me; We feel; We see the bee, etc. Having thus chosen the sentence, but without saying a word of it to the pupils, the teacher proceeds by means of a brief preliminary object lesson, to develop the ideas expressed by it, and at the same time to lead the pupils to form it for themselves; so that what they are about to read will not be something furnished them by the teacher, but will be an article of their own manufacturing,—a production of their own thought. Let us suppose the sentence to be, *We feel.* The teacher having developed the idea of feeling, having led the pupils to perceive that the action is a bringing of the ends of the fingers in contact with the object felt, having at the same time treated the idea expressed by the word *we* in a similar manner, and having led the pupils to form the sentence for themselves, writes it upon the blackboard; analyzes first the sentence into words; then each word into its component sounds; teaches the pupils to recognize the written characters by their sounds; recomposes by synthesis what has been decomposed by analysis,—and thus gives the pupils their first reading lesson.

Our next article will contain a specimen lesson.

The importance of developing, in the manner referred to, the ideas expressed by the sentence, can not be overestimated. By this means we carry the intelligence of the pupils along with their reading; we habituate them from the very outset to read understandingly, to attach a definite meaning to every word.

In a discourse on "Infant Training," delivered last summer by one of the most prominent ministers of the West, it was recommended to require children to memorize scriptural passages, although such passages were beyond their comprehension, and suggested no ideas whatever to their minds. Away with such an absurdity! It is the parent of thoughtless speaking, hearing, and reading. Not that a teacher should insist upon the pupil's grasping the entire meaning of every word in its greatest breadth and depth—its extension and intension—but simply, as an invariable rule, that each word should be the representative of a clear, definite idea in the mind.

Cincinnati, Nov., 1868. J. H. J.

OUR COLLEGES AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

There is no blinking the unwelcome fact that many of our western colleges hardly fulfill their intended purpose. Owing to the want of a sufficient endowment fund, they are almost compelled to take in all students that come, for the sake of adding to their scanty resources and eking out the meagre salaries of their professors; and the silly ambition of ill-prepared young men and women sends them to college, whereas they would find a much fitter place in a high school, or even a lower department.

Thus colleges are driven into an undesired and unprofitable competition with the public schools. Besides, the number of colleges, or institutions claiming that name, has been needlessly increased of late,—chiefly, it would seem, in order that each Christian sect might have its own denominational establishment. Hence arises a mutually ruinous rivalship, and the necessity of putting up with an insufficient staff of instructors, inadequately paid,—of submitting to the want of suitable buildings, apparatus, and other educational appliances.

In the last annual convention at Dayton, Prof. Young, of Ohio University, gave a very interesting lecture on the importance of so regulating the relations between our public schools and our colleges, that they shall form harmonious parts of one uniform system, not insulated and hostile units—sympathizing co-workers, not jealous rivals.

This subject has long occupied my own mind. I have longed to see a plan devised that should make the college the natural goal or terminus of the high school, and secure to the former a regular supply of talented and well drilled students, able and willing to devote four or five years to that more thorough and comprehensive training which colleges do indeed profess to give, but can not from want of properly prepared materials to work upon.

Might not an educational committee or bureau be organized from both branches of the State Legislature, presided over by the School Commissioner, and assisted by such eminent educators as they saw fit to call in to share in their deliberations?

One of the duties of that council would be to select from the multitude of chartered colleges in the State, a certain number of the most effective, to which should be assigned an annual revenue, in order to enable them to keep up a sufficient staff of professors, independently of students' fees, and to supply the want of needful apparatus, with free tuition and commons for poor but talented students. Let the selection stand good for four years, or the usual length of a collegiate course, and be then revised so as always to fall on the most effective colleges, without respect to political or sectarian considerations.

I am fully aware of the extreme difficulty of managing this part of the plan so as to steer clear from all political and sectarian bias or local favoritism. Neither do I underrate the difficulty of determining the scale by which the comparative efficiency of colleges is to be measured; but the difficulty, though great, is not insuperable.

The number of colleges admitted to share in that annual appropriation, will be regulated by the probable demand for collegiate education in the land, and on the amount of money that the State will consent to appropriate to that purpose. The plan might be tried on a small scale at first, to be increased as it was found to work well.

There should be a yearly examination of students who shall have graduated with credit in the high schools, and who look to entering college; the examination to be conducted by a competent board, of which the School Commissioner, County

Examiner, and County Superintendents (whenever we are blessed with such !) shall be members *ex officio*.

The questions (to be changed every year) shall be framed by the board of examiners. The candidates shall meet at the appointed place and time, without books or notes of any kind. In order to prevent the possibility, even the suspicion of favoritism, the examination papers are to be handed in without signature, but with a motto, the duplicate of which, with the writer's name and address, is to be inserted in a separate paper, sealed, and not to be opened until the examiners have decided on the successful candidates.

This, or a similar plan, would secure to our leading colleges a regular supply of students of superior ability and training, thus at once relieving those institutions from the humiliating necessity of condescending to do the part of elementary schools.

The uniformity of system and the healthy stimulus which could thus be given to our high schools, can hardly be overestimated. The students will share in the general impulse. To be nominated by the trustees and teachers of a Union school to represent it at the yearly examination, will, of itself, be an honorable distinction, and to be selected for the final award, will be a still more enviable honor.

Each successful candidate may be allowed the option of selecting whichever of the State-endowed colleges he prefers to attend, free of cost for board and tuition.

This is only a general outline of the plan; the details can easily be filled up afterwards by a body of clear-headed, practical men.

Narrow-minded and short-sighted politicians may object to the outlay; but it will more than repay itself by the new life and activity which it will infuse into the higher departments of public education, creating among our high schools, a spirit of healthy competition, the vitalizing influence of which will permeate every other department. Colleges will be stimulated to increased efficiency, in order to deserve and retain the annual subvention from the State. They will no longer look upon the high schools as rivals, whose customers, however unworthy, they must coax to their own halls, but as nurseries from which to transplant the most vigorous and promising shoots on whose future luxuriance their fame and even their existence are to depend. For the inferior colleges which can not be brought up to the mark and to compete for the State appropriation, will quietly and gradually lapse out of existence, to the great advantage of the public who will thus have pointed out to them, by trustworthy authority, the institutions which are most deserving of their support.

A similar plan was proposed by Prof. Gregory in the Illinois *Teacher* for December, 1867. I have availed myself of several of his suggestions; but the leading idea has long been familiar to me, being, indeed, the application of a system under whose operation I was trained in my boyhood. The higher classes of the government schools or lyceums in Paris send every year, as their representatives, their best scholars who meet for a competitive written examination, in the manner described above. The names of the successful candidates are publicly announced at the general distribution of prizes, in the "concours" of the university. From these the Government usually selects the most promising, who may need to complete their education at the expense of the State. At the end of the regular academical course, they are transferred either to the Normal School, if they intend to follow teaching as a profession, or to the Polytechnic School, if they look to civil or military engineering, etc., as their future career. From that time they are wholly supported at the expense of the Nation, and when they graduate, they are appointed to situations under Government, according to their merit.

T. E. S.

DRAWING IN UNGRADED SCHOOLS.

BY PROF. W. H. YOUNG.*

In the MONTHLY for November, were given fifteen illustrative lessons in drawing, suited to ungraded schools. Verticals, horizontals, obliques, parallels, perpendiculars, and angles, right, acute, and obtuse, were treated. Two weeks with two lessons per day, will be time enough to familiarize an ordinary school with the whole subject thus far.

RECTILINEAR PLAIN FIGURES come next. (Remember the school is now supposed able, readily and truly, to apprehend, define, exemplify, illustrate, and *use* the terms heretofore given.)

Sixteenth Lesson. Present a piece of paper or pasteboard one foot square; draw out the name of its *shape* or *form* (giving smaller pupils first chance); represent it on the blackboard; *get*

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*Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

the general shape well fixed; call out examples—common shape of story books, position of throwers in corner ball, top of common candle stand, bases of many table lamps, spots on chequer board, etc. Present on the blackboard the *square* in contrast with the rectangle, parallelogram, rhombus, trapezoid, trapezium, etc., to fix more firmly the general idea. Of course in this last exercise no new terms are to be given, or special properties to be particularly dwelt upon. Children will take to the *general* notion first: particular properties too soon introduced hinder rather than help. As a drill exercise let pupils, two and two, form squares with rods, first in right position, one presenting the verticals, the other the horizontals; then in oblique position, one presenting the lower, the other the upper sides. For slate exercises, two inch squares, right and oblique, squares *in* squares, squares *on* squares, square house front with square windows, etc.

Seventeenth Lesson. Review last. Introduce the terms *equal* and *unequal*, as applied to lines; illustrate freely on board, bringing out perception, comparison, discrimination, etc.; call out many examples, gradually but not ostensibly leading the way to comparing sides or edges of familiar quadrilateral figures. Recall attention to the *square*, drawing out its property of equality of sides; contrast it with other (unnamed) quadrilaterals in respect to *this property.* Same slate and paper exercises as before, but now let execution, praise, and criticism have special reference to *equality of sides.* Written spelling may be arranged in squares, slate and board solutions in arithmetic, and map-drawings, may be enclosed in squares; approximations to squares in geographical divisions may be noted, and an illustrative lesson on arithmetical square measure introduced.

Eighteenth Lesson. Review last two. Introduce the terms *equal* and *unequal* as applied to angles, and follow general course of last lesson.

Nineteenth Lesson. Review last two; also, lessons on angles, bringing out clearly the *right angle.* Represent the *square*, making prominent its property of right angles. Follow the general course of last lesson, but in all exercises make the right angle the chief point.

Twentieth Lesson. Review last three. Review *parallels* and *perpendiculars.* Introduce terms *adjacent* and *opposite*, as applied to sides and angles of rectilineal figures, especially quadrilaterals with repeated examples and illustrations. Draw out the property of parallelism of opposite and perpendicularity of adjacent sides in squares. Freely use all suitable means and methods before given.

Twenty-first Lesson. Review last five, with copious illustration, criticism, and *practice.*

Twenty-second Lesson. Same as last.

Twenty-third Lesson. The *diagonal.*

Twenty-fourth Lesson. The *rectangle.* Present it in contrast with other quadrilaterals; call out its difference from the square; require examples and illustrations; fix the term; call out the properties. Exercise largely.

Twenty-fifth Lesson. The *parallelogram.* Treat like rectangle.

Twenty-sixth Lesson. *Rhombus.* Same as before.

Twenty-seventh Lesson. *Trapezoid.* Same as before.

Twenty-eighth Lesson. *Trapezium.* Same as before.

Twenty-ninth Lesson. Introduce and explain the general term *quadrilateral*, as embracing the preceding.

Thirtieth Lesson. Review by visible presentation, definition, description, and name, with illustration, example, and *execution*, the several kinds of quadrilaterals.

Perhaps the above is enough detail.

Next take the genus *triangle*, making a distinct lesson of each species, right angled, acute, obtuse, equilateral, isosceles, scaline, etc.

Then the genus *polygon*, running rapidly over triangles and quadrilaterals by way of review and classification, and passing to *pentagons*, regular and irregular, *hexagons*, regular and irregular, and perhaps *heptagons*; which will be far enough unless larger pupils take an interest in going a little farther.

So far only *straight* lines have been used, but without special reference to that property. Present now the *straight* line as *without change of direction.* Exemplify and illustrate fully. Present a *bending curved* line as *with change of direction at every point*, with full exemplification and illustration.

Present a *circle* as a round figure with its *line bending or changing direction equally at every point.* By way of contrast and illustration, present other curves. Exemplify largely.

Introduce *diameter*, with its equality in every direction.

Introduce *center* and *radius*, with properties, definitions, relations, etc.

Introduce *circumference*, *semi-circumference*, *arc*, *quadrant*, etc., each in detail, with copious exemplification, illustration, and practice. In all this work be unsparing in the call for examples; it will prove most interesting and profitable to all.

Introduce the *ellipse* in all respects as the circle. Its properties, analysis, examples, and applications may consume a half dozen lessons. Meat platters and other dishes, a compressed trundling hoop, rim of a man's hat, pupil of a cat's eye, arches, leaves of trees, sections of certain fruits and nuts, etc., are some of the examples.

Present the *oval* or egg-shaped curve in like manner as the ellipse. At this point enter largely upon the study of leaves of plants, their forms ostensibly but much else in fact.

Present *serpentine* lines by various combinations of different sized arcs of the circle, ellipse, and oval. They are beautiful in themselves, and have a thousand illustrations in nature and art; courses of streams, flight of birds, shape of clouds; human figure and feature, other animal forms; pitchers, vases, cups, goblets, lamps, parlor ornaments; arches, mouldings, columns, capitals, prizes, etc., in architecture. There would seem no end of them. Of course in this part of the work reference is had only to outline forms.

SOLIDS should next be treated, beginning with the simplest and passing by natural, easy steps to the more complex. There is here a still richer and pleasanter field for youthful study, and one that can be made proportionally more attractive and profitable. I must not dwell upon it.

Now in all that has been said, only *hints* have been given. The field, it must be admitted (or rather the cultivation of it), is rare; it is no less rich. It admits of indefinite extension and unlimited application—and all the time delightful and profitable to student and economical to student and teacher. The little fellow will like his capital I better, when it is a part of the drawing lesson and he, with all the school in concert, analyzes it into parallel verticals and horizontals, inclosing a rectangle. Such analyses of the letters in concert and then the making of them in concert, may be kept up from an early stage to the last; for an analysis of the serpentine curves of the S will test the truest eye and quickest perception. (Drawing in concert may be conducted thus: Pupils seated, slates and pencils ready. Teacher says: "Draw a two-inch vertical"—himself executing on the board a foot vertical; "another, parallel and a half inch from the first"—himself executing one three inches from the other; "cross the top with an inch horizontal; cross the bottom with an inch horizontal"—himself executing on the board proportional lines. "Now what have you?" "The letter I", ring out the merry voices. So for other forms.) The little geographers will like and learn their geography better, if some river, coast, or boundary be made a drawing lesson in concert execution and analyses of serpentine lines. The little arithmeticians will like and learn their liquid measure better, if gills, pints, quarts, gallons, etc., are put upon the board, duly proportioned, resolved into vertical, parallel, and elliptical lines, and then transferred to slates in concert exercise. Frost on the school-room windows, and snow, if you have a magnifying glass, will lose no attractiveness if found resolvable into angular forms, of wonderful beauty, that may be reproduced on slate and paper. The apple, lilac, or locust leaf is no less closely observed or readily learned, when found to approximate the circular, oval, or elliptical form. The blade of a carpenter's saw is no less attractive to his son for being put upon the slate or blackboard as a trapezium with one side cut into acute angles. Nor is one's taste vitiated or his enjoyment lessened, or his morals corrupted or heart hardened, by being taught to see beauty and fitness and wisdom and love in a thousand forms, that, but for the culture I am advocating, would most likely escape him.

SOME PROPERTIES OF PERFECT CUBES.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, O.

The properties of perfect cubes mentioned in this article, were discovered by me in the summer of 1867. My attention was directed to the matter by a remark made to me by Mr. Orton, "the lightning calculator," who was then teaching a class his methods of rapid calculation.

The perfect cubes (after 1) ending in 1, end successively with 31, 61, 91, 21, 51, 81, 11, 41, 71, 01. The next and all succeeding ten perfect cubes ending in 1, end with the same set of figures in the same order. The roots of all cubes ending in 31 end in 11; in 61, 21; in 91, 31; in 21, 41; in 51, 51; in 81, 61; in 11, 71; in 41, 81; in 71, 91; in 01, 01.

Hence we see that if we multiply the tens' figure in a perfect cube ending in 1 by 7, we have the tens' figure of the root if we reject the left-hand digit of the product.

Let us apply this fact to the following cube, 531,441. We know the root ends in 1, and by multiplying the tens' figure 4 by 7 and rejecting the left-hand digit, we get 8 for the tens' figure of the root, hence the root is 81. Thus we see that in order to decide the root of a perfect cube containing no more than six figures and ending in 1, we need to know only the figure in the cube before the 1.

Let us decide the cube root of 707,347,971. All we need to know is 707,...,.71. The nearest cube below 707 is 512, whose root is 8, and 7 times 7 gives 9 for the tens' figure; hence the root is 891.

The perfect cubes (after 343, the cube of 7) ending in 3, end successively in 13, 83, 53, 23, 93, 63, 33, 03, 73, 43, and the roots in 17, 27, 37, 47, 57, 67, 77, 87, 97, 07. Hence we see that the tens' figure of the root may be obtained by multiplying the tens' figure of the cube by 3, adding 8, and then rejecting the left-hand digit.

The perfect cubes (after 27, the cube of 3) ending in 7, end in 97, 67, 37, 07, 77, 47, 17, 87, 57, 27, and the roots in 13, 23, 33, 43, 53, 63, 73, 83, 93, 03. The tens' figure of the root may be obtained by multiplying the tens' figure of the cube by 3, adding 4, and then rejecting the left-hand digit.

The perfect cubes (after 729, the cube of 9) ending in 9, end in 59, 89, 19, 49, 79, 09, 39, 69, 99, 29, and the roots in 19, 29, 39, 49, 59, 69, 79, 89, 99, 09. The tens' figure of the root may be obtained by multiplying the tens' figure of the cube by 7, adding 6, and rejecting the left-hand digit.

The perfect cubes (after 512, the cube of 8) ending in 2, end in 32, 52, 72, 92, 12, and the roots in 18 or 68, 28 or 78, 38 or 88, 48 or 98, 58 or 08. The tens' figure of the root may be obtained by multiplying the tens' figure of the cube by 3, adding 2 or 7, and then rejecting the left-hand digit.

The perfect cubes (after 64, the cube of 4) ending in 4, end in 44, 24, 04, 84, 64, and the roots in 14 or 64, 24 or 74, 34 or 84, 44 or 94, 54 or 04. The tens' figure of the root may be obtained by multiplying the tens' figure of the cube by 2, adding 3 or 8, and then rejecting the left hand digit.

The perfect cubes (after 216, the cube of 6) ending in 6, end in 96, 76, 56, 36, 16, and the roots in 16 or 66, 26 or 76, 36 or 56, 46 or 96, 56 or 06. The tens' figure of the root may be obtained by multiplying the tens' figure of the cube by 2, adding 3 or 8, and then rejecting the left-hand digit.

The perfect cubes (after 8, the cube of 2) ending in 8, end in 28, 48, 68, 88, 08, and the roots end in 12 or 62, 22 or 72, 32 or 82, 42 or 92, 52 or 02. The tens' figure of the root may be obtained by multiplying the tens' figure of the cube by 3, adding 0 or 5, and then rejecting the left-hand digit.

The perfect cubes (after 125, the cube of 5) ending in 5, end in 75 or 25, and the roots in 15, 35, 55, 75, 95, or 05, 25, 45, 65, 85.

Thus we see that if a perfect cube ends in 75, the root ends in 5 preceded by an odd number, but if in 25, in 5 preceded by an even number.

Let us find the cube root of 561,515,625. We know it must be 805, 825, 845, 865, or 885. The 561 leads us to decide in favor of 825. If we multiply the cube by 8, we get 4,492,125,000. Multiplying again by 8, we get 35,937,000,000. The cube root of 35,937 is decided by our rule to be 33, hence the entire root is 3300 which must be divided by 2 twice as we multiplied by 8 twice. Thus we get 825 as before.

It will be noticed that when a cube ends in 2, 4, 6, or 8, that there is an ambiguity as to the tens' figure of the root.

Let us extract the cube root of 714,516,984. The root by our rule must be either 894 or 844. It is plain that it is the first. But there is a sure way of deciding the ambiguity. *The difference between a perfect integral cube and its root* is divisible by 6. Now 846 subtracted from the cube, leaves 714,516,140, which is not divisible by 6.

I have discovered additional properties, particularly as to the mode of finding the hundreds' figures of the root. These I may give at some future time.

THE CLASS ROOM.

GEOMETRY—LESSON III.—ANGLES.

Draw upon the board a straight line AB. In which direction does this line extend from A? In which direction from B?

Take the point O, between A and B. In what directions does it extend from O?

How many directions has a straight line? What relation have these directions each to the other? *They are contrary or opposite.*

What are parallel lines? Can parallels be said to have different directions? *Yes, if taken in different ways.*

Draw upon the board two lines having different directions. Are they parallel? Why? Will they meet? What lines will not meet? Why? What lines will meet? Why? Do these lines meet? *No.* How can they be made to meet?

Produce these lines till they meet. Have they now a common point? Where? Why common? Have the lines the same direction from that point? Have they opposite directions?

Draw two lines having a greater difference of direction than these. Two with less difference. These are angles. We have drawn three angles.

What is an angle? JOHN: *Two straight lines meeting in a point.* SARAH: *It is the space enclosed.*

No. Both are wrong; the lines are not the angle, and do not enclose any space. Can any one do better?

RICHARD: *The difference of direction forms the angle.*

Right. Use the word *divergence* instead of difference of direction—'t is easier. What then forms an angle? *The divergence of two straight limes forms an angle.*

But if two lines diverge, they must diverge *from* some place. From what, then? *From a point. The divergence of two straight lines from a point forms an angle.* Repeat. Write.

The lines are called the *sides* of the angle. The point of divergence is the *vertex* of the angle.

How many letters are needed to designate an angle? Which one should be in the middle?

Which of the three angles on the board is greatest? Why? Which is least? Why?

Draw an angle with sides about one foot in lenth. Right. Now produce the sides as far as the limits of the board will allow. Have we enlarged the angle? Why?

Draw an angle much smaller than any of these. Right. Who can draw one still less. Very well. In this one there is but a a small difference in the direction of the sides. We can imagine this angle to grow less and less as the directions of the sides approach, till what finally happens? What becomes then of the angle? Of the sides?

Now let us imagine the angle gradually to increase as the sides diverge. What will finally happen?

Draw two straight lines crossing each other. How many angles are formed? Can you form *three* angles with two lines?

Draw two angles formed by two lines. How many have made one of the angles larger than the other? Make them equal. Right.

Each of these angles is a right angle. The two angles you have formed are *adjacent* angles; that is, they lie together—two neighbors may live on adjacent farms. When are farms or lots adjacent? Is Mr. Patten's lot adjacent to ours? *No.* Why? *Because it is separated from us by the street.* When do lines form right angles? *When they make adjacent angles equal.*

Draw two lines crossing at right angles. How many angles are formed? What kind? Which is the largest?

Now draw two angles which are unequal. Point out the larger. How does it compare with a right angle? *It is larger.* Yes. That is an *obtuse* angle. What is an obtuse angle? The word obtuse means dull; the sides of a very dull ax may slope to an obtuse angle.

Now compare the smaller of the two with a right angle. Larger or less? This is an acute angle. What is an acute angle? Acute means sharp.

Any angle but a right angle may be called an *oblique* angle, because one of the lines is oblique to the other—sloping you would say. The sides of a right angle, do they slope one to the other? *No.* We say, then, that they are perpendicular to each other. Notice that this use of the word is different from the common use, for *each* line is perpendicular *to the other.* On the board where we have four right angles together, James may point out which lines are perpendicular to which. Right. Excused.

Marion, O. W. W.

A SCHOOL INCIDENT.

On one occasion, when visiting a school, the teacher, regarded one of the best in the city, led up to me a boy some ten or twelve years old, with the remark that she wished me to tell her what she should do with him, for he was a very bad boy—every day, all the time bad. The boy's head was as near in her bosom as he could get it. I told him to look up, and let me see the face of a bad boy. After much persuasion he did so. "What," said I, "this fine looking lad a *bad* boy? I should have taken him for one of the best in school, such a fine manly countenance." And in saying it I spoke my real sentiments. I then said to the boy, "Surely you can be a good boy if you try. Do you not think you can?" "Yes, sir," was the reply. "Well, then, will you promise me to try?" "Yes, sir." "Well, then, when I come again, will you come to me from your seat without being called, and inform me if you have been a good boy since I was here before?" He promised to do so. I was not in that school again for several months, and the occurrence had escaped my memory. Soon after I entered the school-room, I saw a boy approaching me. "That," said the teacher, "is the boy who promised to inform you if he had been good since you were last here." He approached me with a smile. "Well, now," said I, "have you been good and obedient since I was here?" He replied in the affirmative. "But I must appeal to the teacher," I said. She at once replied that he had stated the truth; that he had given her no trouble in the least, and there was no better boy in school.

Now, what was the secret of that reformation. Plainly, in my mind, he had been so long and constantly told that he was bad, that he believed it, and would not try to be otherwise. But a word of encouragement was just what he needed.

Wm. Slocomb.

QUERIES ANSWERED.

Ed. Monthly: Allow me to ask for a little light:

Is the word Charles's (and similar words in the possessive) pronounced in one or two syllables?

Which is correct, four times five *is* twenty, or four times five *are* twenty?

H.

Mr. White: I give the following brief comments on the above queries which you were so kind as to send me by mail:

1. When '*s* is added to any word ending in the sounds of s, z, sh, ch, and j, it is pronounced as an additional syllable; as, Cass's Charles's Marsh's, Church's, Bridge's, etc.

2. I have an article, begun about a year ago, under the title "Twice two is four", in which I undertake a full discussion of the agreement of verbs with numeral nouns. The Arithmetics generally use *are* in the multiplication-table. J. Russell Webb, on p. 20 of his Second Reader, in the Multiplication-Song, uses *is*, and justifies it in a foot-note as follows:

> "We presume some, at first, will object to this form of expression, as heretofore the plural verb (are) has generally been used; but we believe a moment's reflection will convince them that the form used by us is correct. It will be observed that the word 'times' is *not* the *nominative* or subject of the verb, nor is this word in connection with the word preceding it; but that the *phrase* (including the word preceding and the following word 'times') is the simple, *single* subject of the *verb*, and therefore requires its *singular* form."

I forbear to give my own opinion. W. D. Henkle.

Salem, O., Nov. 16, 1868.

"WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS OF MOST WORTH."*

BY EX-GOVERNOR J. D. COX.

(*Concluded.*)

If we try to define exactly the difference between the mental manifestations in man and in brutes, we shall perhaps find ourselves unable to do better than to say that man possesses the power of reflecting upon his own thoughts, while brutes do not. Man is thus enabled to treat his thoughts as things, to compare them, to observe their relations, to imagine changes in them, and to develop them—in short, to reason. But to what end and for what purpose does he reason? Manifestly that he may elevate his conceptions toward the divine, and, forming for himself a true ideal of the perfectibility of his own nature, strive earnestly and unceasingly to attain it. The distinction between him and the brute is precisely such as enables him to form this ideal in each department of his nature, and is what constitutes him man and not mere animal.

When we look at Mr. Spencer's classification of human activities, we shall find that those which he places first in order of importance are those which man shares with the brute, and it is only when we come to the last and least of the whole five classes that we find anything which can be called distinctively human. The lower animals, like man, have activities that tend to self-preservation, that secure the necessaries of life, that rear offspring, and even that tend, in some sense, to create and preserve a social community. This, in itself, would seem to be enough to condemn the classification as vicious. The dignity and importance of a human career must be found in that which makes it human, and it is almost a *reductio ad absurdum* to argue that that is most important to man which he possesses in common with the lower orders of beings, or that the education is most important to him which will teach him to do what the brutes do without any education whatever.

The same general arguments may properly be used in regard to differen classes of men. It is by no means proven that the most civilized and enligh ened nations are better off in the essentials of a mere physical existence the propagation of their species than the uncivilized tribes of Africa. So f as mere animal existence is concerned, it may well be questioned whether t savage does not enjoy the best of it, if he live in a country where either t abundance of game or the natural products of the earth afford a sufficient s sistence without great labor. I verily believe that the experience of our you men in this generation will bear me out in the assertion that the nomadic and coarse fare of the camp give a keener relish and livelier enjoyment to mere sensation of physical existence than they had ever found in any ot way. Such is certainly the conclusion I have reached from both experie and observation, and if forced to find the value of civilization and educat chiefly in the increased advantages for the support of man's animal li should unhesitatingly conclude that civilization had proven an utter failur

If, on the other hand, we compare civilized and uncivilized races by standard which I have contended for, and estimate their advance by their proximation to the ideal in virtue, in art, and in intellectual power, we see at once that we have found the true criterion of progress, and that our reason approves the estimate which puts a far higher value upon this sort of growth than upon any thing which pertains to our physical nature alone.

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* An Address delivered before the Alumni of Oberlin College, August 4, 186

It would not be necessary even to allude to so trite a subject as the value of civilization and enlightenment, were it not for the ingenious way in which Mr. Spencer and those who follow him, attempt to build an argument in favor of a particular scheme of study upon what I have tried to show is a false statement of the relative worth of different activities and of the education which tends to fit us for them. The natural sciences, they say, have developed the physical resources of the world, and are concerned in the production of all we eat and wear; but the procuring of food and raiment is the most important human work: therefore, the natural sciences are the most important elements in human intellectual education. Such, when reduced to syllogistic form, is the argument upon which they rely. When they display the triumphs of chemistry, and dazzle us with the truly brilliant array of glorious discoveries its devotees have made, they use the fallacious assumption that it is to their value in the common arts of life that we owe the discoveries, whereas no truth of history can be plainer than that the thirst for knowledge for its own sake, and as enlarging man's mental domain, has stimulated men to the studies which have often unexpectedly resulted in physical and material benefits to the race. When they laud the value of mathematical study, they ignore the fact that the earlier mathematicians were unmercifully derided by the practical men of their day as the absurdest of visionary theorists, who were wasting upon circles and triangles the energies which should have been devoted to the plow or to the sword. We may run the whole round of the sciences, and shall find that had the principle prevailed that knowledge was only of value in proportion as it directly taught how to supply the necessaries of life, no progress could possibly have been made in any one of them; for no man could possibly foretell any advantage in this respect which could come from scientific study, till the discovery were actually made; and when made, it has often proved the furthest possible removed from that for which the discoverer was looking.

Another fallacy often used by the class of writers under consideration, is that of assuming that a scientific knowledge of whatever enters into one's work in life, is of great use in the practical performance of that work. In many cases this is as absurdly and evidently untrue as to affirm that a scientific knowledge of the causes of the tides and of the local increase of the tidal wave would be of great use to the inhabitants of the shores of the Bay of Fundy in preserving their children and their cattle from drowning. The theory of those tides is a most curious and interesting thing, and, as science, would be attractive and valuable to whoever might study them; but the only thing of practical value to the fisherman or his family, is to know that the tide flows at certain intervals, with a certain rapidity and to a certain hight. The fact is, that scientific theory and physical practice are, in a vast majority of instances, widely divorced, and if we could not defend scientific or literary education by better arguments than those drawn from their utility in practical bread-getting, they would quickly go to the wall. Such arguments may sometimes prevail with ignorant people, whom we would persuade into giving their children a better education than they have themselves; but to use them is a species of mental dishonesty, and it may well be doubted whether anybody who has intelligence enough to be influenced by such considerations, may not be more powerfully affected by the truth that education ennobles the man.

So far as practical results from scientific investigation is concerned, it is, and of necessity must be, very rarely the case that a mind which is occupied upon the mere mechanical repetition of the details of a trade, or manual occupation, can have the leisure for pushing scientific researches far enough to improve the processes of his business in any respect in which they depend upon profound science. This is impliedly admitted by Mr. Spencer, when he says that chemical processes enter so largely into so common a trade as that of brewing, that the brewer of large business finds his account in keeping a chemist on his premises. The chemical knowledge which makes this professional chemist valuable to the wholesale brewer, is the accumulation of a life-time of study, devoted to a particular science, and it is simply laughable to argue that such a preparation in chemistry should be part of the education of a brewer's apprentice.

Even in the existing condition of civilization, a comparatively small body of thoroughly educated scientific men do all that is done in the application of science to the arts and common business of life, because the advance of knowledge has already been such that only the few who combine special adaptation to the pursuit, with many years' devotion to it, can hope to advance any department of pure science. Indeed, a small subdivision of a science is as much as one man may hope to master in detail, and the whole argument that the mechanical practitioners of a business or trade need a scientific knowledge of all the processes involved in it, or would find practical advantage in their work from such smattering of science as their leisure or their youthful education would give them, falls to the ground.

It must be noticed that this does not in the least interfere with the belief in the material advantages which the world derives from science, nor with the opinion that it is extremely desirable that competent scientific men should push their investigations in all directions in which further valuable discoveries are likely to be found. I am only combatting the theory that the assistance which any department of knowledge gives in procuring the necessaries of life is the criterion by which we should judge of the worth of that knowledge for purposes of general education.

Astronomy is a science which, by Mr. Spencer's standard, should be next to useless, for the movements of the principal heavenly bodies need only to be accurately observed and noted to make navigation reasonably secure, and all the nicer investigations, reaching out into extra planetary space, are wasted, unless knowledge is valuable for some other reason than its material profit. Yet the world will be slow to place the labors of Newton or Kepler below those of the brewer's chemist. Do we assign Shakspeare and Milton to their proper place when we put them in the last and lowest of Mr. Spencer's five classes, as the mere amusers of our leisure hours? Are Socrates and Plato, Des Cartes and Locke, Kant and Hamilton, all idlers, whose thoughts, since they can hardly be called amusing, and certainly do not assist the world to food or clothing, are not to have any appreciable value assigned them? Was Mr. Spencer engaged in the least important of all human activities when pondering his psychology and biology?

But enough. It is certainly evident that it is no criterion of the worth of human knowledge which places its value in the aid it gives in bread-getting, and that any theory which makes physical subsistence the most important end of human effort tends, if consistently and logically carried out, to destroy all civilization, and reduce man to the condition of the brute. It will not do to say that Mr. Spencer finds a practical use for every science, applying even biology and psychology to the rearing of children and the conduct of the state. If children are educated only that they may earn a living, and if society and the state are only subordinate means of protecting us in the struggle for the same primary and most important object, all unnecessary education and unnecessary complications of social organization are a waste of effort, and we return to the conclusion that the thoughtless and careless savage who eats his buffalo or his bread fruit is the truest philosopher.

When we assume, however, that the theory we have been criticizing is a false one, and even that we have found the truth when we assert that the real criterion of the value of knowledge is its tendency to elevate our nature toward the ideal, our difficulties do not all immediately vanish. It is objected that the mere support of life does in fact absorb by far the greater share of the time and attention of civilized men, and that what is thus admitted to occupy so much time and thought from the very necessity of our circumstances, may fairly be held to have an equal relative importance.

To this there are two answers. First, that quantity is not quality, and that, however inscrutable the Creator's purpose may have been in decreeing that in the sweat of our faces we should eat our bread, the smaller part of our lives which we may devote to our highest culture may in real value far outweigh the larger, which we must give to physical toil. It may be that in the divine economy, as in the human, the worth of a thing is estimated by the cost of production, and that the necessity of economizing the moments which are available for the highest uses, may be intended to make us set a still higher value than we should otherwise do, upon the products we may get from them. This necessity for industry, if we would accomplish anything, is taught in so many ways that we may well assume that work is meant to be a discipline, and that we are, therefore, not allowed to reach those things we most covet, except we submit cheerfully to the condition, and be "diligent in business." One-third of our time is lost in sleep, an absolute loss which demonstrates that the necessary expenditure of time is no guage of the importance of the thing in which it is spent; for we are not speaking of it as a means to another end, but as an end in itself. Sleep is good, as a means of restoring "tired nature," but in itself, it is like death, of which it is the prototype, a deprivation and absence of all good. That the valuably productive hours are so few, seems to me, therefore, to be so far from proving that they are least important, that the fact may the rather be held to make for the opposite conclusion, and to argue their preciousness.

But there is another answer to the objeetion, and that is, that a noble purpose gives new character to all the means used to accomplish it. The inventor of a new machine may have shown marvelous powers of comprehension and mental construction in devising it, whilst in making it of wood and metal he may be only performing the merest mechanical drudgery; yet in this mechanical labor he is invested with all the dignity which belongs to genius, because the work on which he is engaged is the realization of a great mental conception, and he feels that the blows he strikes are not the mere exchange of so much manual dexterity and skill in the use of tools for so much bread, but rise to the grade of his intellectual life and are dignified by becoming part of the process by which his thought is transformed into its material embodiment; and this is true not only of the physical work directly connected with the realization of thought, but of that which indirectly tends to the same end. Though the inventor I have supposed should be forced to work upon his invention at intervals only, and to spend most of his time in working for hire to earn a livelihood, or the means to buy the material to complete his plans; still the glory which belongs to a great purpose will gild the whole life, and the thoughts of the object of his ambition and his hopes will crowd into the minutest intervals of his toil, forbidding that it should ever become a dwarfing or degrading thing. To whatever sphere of life or kind of occupation we apply these considerations, the result is the same; and life, as a whole, will be noble or mean, attractive or repulsive, as the ruling purpose which controls it is worthy or unworthy. All that can be demanded of us, all that we can demand of ourselves is, that, having once fixed our eye upon the true ideal, we honestly and diligently use all the opportunities and means within our reach to assist us in approximating it.

I shall notice but one other fallacy in the Spencerian theory, and that is the assertion that "it would be utterly contrary to the beautiful economy of nature, if one kind of culture were needed for the gaining of information, and another kind were needed as a mental gymnastic." "The red Indian," we are told, "acquires the swiftness and agility which make him a successful hunter, by the actual pursuit of animals," and the conclusion is drawn that "we may be certain, *a priori*, that the same law holds throughout education." The application made of this inference is, that since education in the physical sciences is the only *practical* education, such science is the only fit means of intellectual discipline. As I have already attempted to show that high scientific culture can be called *practical* only by a license which would also include every department of literature and metaphysical philosophy, I might content myself with saying that as the premise fails we need not trouble ourselves about the conclusion. The point, however, warrants a little fuller examination.

If we were attempting to train a child upon the most rigid utilitarianism which could be conceived, we should still find it impossible to predict what our pupil would be fit for when grown, and, therefore, should be equally at a loss to decide upon the line of special instruction needed. No one will seriously contend now-a-days that human nature is so completely plastic that we may determine a human being's career from the cradle, and feed him with the pabulum, both mental and physical, which will be peculiarly fitted for that career alone. Vagaries of this sort may safely be left to whimsical enthusiasts who will not have following enough to make it necessary to refute them; or, if answered at all, the best reply will be that given some years ago by one of the illustrated newspapers, in a humorous wood-cut, wherein the patent developing process was caricatured by a picture of a laboratory, in which, under bell glasses and with elaborate machinery for supplying the needed elements, a spectacled wiseacre was "forcing" infants,—developing in one, brain; in another, arms; and in another, legs, according as a philosopher, a smith, or a dancer were wanted; the unnecessary parts being reduced to a minimum, which made the contrast ludicrously grotesque.

The truth is, that even when the social circumstances of a youth are such as to leave the choice of a business or career open to him, it is not usually until he approaches maturity that there is evident any such tendency or bias of mind as will be a safe guide in deciding for what he is best fitted. Nothing is more common than to see a student go plodding on with a course of study for years, puzzling his friends and teachers as to his mental character, until finally some accidental circumstance, some taste of a new kind of learning will awaken his powers, and he will spring forward with a bound, easily distancing competition in his new chosen career. For this reason it is necessary that early education should have variety in it, and the mental response the student makes to various kinds of stimulus applied should be carefully watched.. For the same reason it is impossible to seek discipline only in the preäppointed line of a permanent career, for no such line can be determined at the beginning, and the mental gymnastic must be such as to give the best average results, trusting to the powers so developed to find or make a way for themselves subsequently.

If we assume the truth of the doctrine that discipline is to be got only in doing or studying the thing in which man's daily work consists, the red Indian would never get beyond his hunting; for no series of hunts would teach even agriculture or any mode of passing into a material civilization, to say nothing of any purely intellectual progress. Whatever be the scale of advancement from which we start, it is safe to say that no practice of the daily routine for the sake of mere proficiency in it, ever lifts a man to a higher grade. It is only when his soul has beome enamored of perfection, when he fixes his purpose to get beyond all past achievement, and acquires the love of knowledge for its own sake, that any real advance is made. The spirit which animates all true progress is admirably expressed by Lessing in a passage quoted by Sir Wm. Hamilton. "Did the Almighty," says he, "holding in his right hand truth, and in his left, search after truth, deign to proffer me the one I might prefer, in all humility, but without hesitation, I should request search after truth."

If Hugh Miller had been content to study only how to become a better quarryman or stonemason, he might have remained to the end of his days in the Cromarty quarries, as blind to the divine words written in the stone-book of the old red sandstone, as the other generations of poor Scotch laborers who had preceded him. They, as well as he, had seen the fossils tumble from their primeval bed, as with pick and crowbar they heaved the strata from their place to make of them a village tombstone or a cottage hearth. But he had somehow become smitten with the zeal to know, had chosen the "search after truth," whilst they were content to make little improvements and economies in the working of the stone and the routine of their humble trade. They were practical men, and were content to call the fossil belemnite, a "thunderbolt," as their fathers had done before them, whilst he was determined to comprehend the testimony of the rocks, and the asterolepis seemed to be calling to him from the heart of Moray cliff to come and discover it, and describe it with a poetic beauty and justness of description which should charm the learned world. To his brother quarrymen, Hugh Miller was as very an impracticable as a Porson or a Bentley would seem to be to Mr. Spencer.

It will not do to say that Miller's geology was practical study, because it was connected in time and place with the mechanical work of quarrying; for such latitude would allow us to assert that psychology is a practical study for all men, because they are constantly dealing with each other, and the languages are practical because all men use their tongues. There would be nothing left of Mr. Spencer's theory with such an interpretation.

We may go further, however, and say that in the actual manner in which the necessities of our existence or casual circumstances determine the business by which men get their bread, that culture which gives its only real value and dignity to life must often be very far removed from the daily work. In some few learned professions or artistic employments men may make their progress in the higher development go step by step with their ordinary employment; but such cases are the very small minority, and it may be doubted whether in the freshness which variety gives, and in the pleasures of contrasted occupations, there may not be a compensation for the loss of time. But be this as it may, the stubborn fact remains that most men must seek their highest culture in paths far separated from those which their neighbors see them commonly treading.

Socrates was a statuary by trade, and though he showed in many ways that he had high conceptions of the beautiful as well as the good, we do not learn that he ever rivaled Phidias, and he might have spent his time to his dying day cutting out rude Hermes for Athenian door-ways, or copying the conventional forms of mythologic decoration, without leaving the world a whit the richer for his existence. It was only when, amid the derision of the sophists and professional teachers of his time, he began to use his terrible dialectic upon the mental and moral shams around him, that he became the world's benefactor, and laid the foundation of a fame durable as the ages. The training which evolved the Socratic method was not given by his masters in sculpture, and was not to be found in any rules handling mallet and chisel.

In a humble tenement at Amsterdam, an excommunicated Jew made his living by grinding spectacle glasses and other optical lenses. His neighbors knew him as a patient, charitable, inoffensive, and laborious man, earning a bare subsistence by a mechanical trade. His mind did not seek its discipline by perfecting the mechanism of his business, nor even in what would have seemed a cognate employment, the study of optics. The world has heard nothing of his improvements or discoveries in natural science; but when his pure and patient life ended, and the "Ethica" was published, it was soon seen that spectacle-making was the mere husk of Spinoza's existence; that his career was not to be found in the labor which had given him food, but in those wonderfully profound and subtle thoughts, which he had builded up into a system, between the turns of his wheel, and piled into a geometric pyramid of philosophy, which was to mark an epoch in the world's intellectual history as imperishably as the pyramid of Cheops immortalizes a historic dynasty.

Charles Lamb was known, to those who had business to do in the old East India House, as one of some score of patient clerks, bending over their great ledgers and posting to debit and credit the cargoes of silks, spices, and drugs, which the wall-sided old trading ships had brought round the Cape of Good Hope. Year after year he polished the same desk with his sleeves, and had the world looked to him to find his discipline and his career in improving bookkeeping by double entry, or even in compiling statistics of trade and commerce, it would have been sorely disappointed. He did not accept Mr. Spencer's theory of the practical in study. He looked upon the mechanical routine as a quiet means of getting his bread and a rare book now and then; but his life and his life's work was as far removed from India House as Calcutta or Bombay. He was really a foreigner and stranger among his fellow clerks, however genial may have been his passing intercourse with them. His friends were Wordsworth and Coleridge, Hazlitt and Southey, and his life reached back to Ben Johnson and the wits and poets of Queen Bess' time. He says of himself: "How cool I sit in this office, with no possible interruption further than what I may term material. There is not as much metaphysics in thirty-six of the people here as there is in the first page of Locke's Treatise on the Human Understanding, or as much poetry as in any ten lines of the 'Pleasures of Hope.'"

Rogers was a banker, and a successful one; but the world sets more store by his sweet verses, which have made him known as "Rogers the poet," than by all the money he accumulated in his bank vaults. The work which was to endure, was in this case, also, as far as possible removed from the ephemeral employment which made his daily business.

Stuart Mill has spent his life, like Lamb, in the monotony of the India Company's counting-house; but this has been only the accident of an existence of which the substance has been a philosophic self-culture that has carried him through nearly the whole round of human thought, and made him a world's teacher instead of a government clerk.

Anthony Trollope is said to be an officer in the British post-office; but we all rejoice that his thoughts have escaped from mail-bags and postal routine, and given us the "Chronicles of Barset."

We see the same thing on every hand among our friends who have achieved no fame. The thing in which their culture has been most valuable to themselves is, quite as often as otherwise, entirely removed in character and tendencies from the occupation on which their material support depends. Necessity, opportunity, accident, the will of parents, or a thousand various circumstances may determine how a man shall gain his livelihood, but his cultivation and development will never reach the highest attainable point, unless his own capacity, taste, and aptitude point out the path by which he shall make his attempt to approach the ideal. It is often true, besides, that a business capacity which assures pecuniary success in one line of life is united with intellectual tastes and tendencies fitted for high culture in quite another direction. The two things can not always be made to agree, though we may regard those lives as happy ones in which they are found in harmony.

But I am already running beyond the limits I had assigned myself, and must hasten to a summary and conclusion of the subject.

In response to the question, "What knowledge is of most worth?" we have found that the true end of human existence in this life is the approximation in character, in intellect, and in taste, as nearly as possible, to the divine ideal. That knowledge is of most worth, therefore, which most directly and strongly tends to expand and elevate all the faculties and powers of our nature.

We have found, also, that the material and mental parts of us have separate needs, and make different demands which can not always be harmonized, and that out of this condition of things often, if not usually, arises the necessity of separating between the education which pertains to procuring physical subsistence and bodily comfort, and that which belongs to the accomplishment of our higher destiny.

From this point it is easy to perceive what must be the practical principles and rules which should underlie a system of education.

First—In the earlier stages of instruction the two paths coincide, because a certain amount of the knowledge of the world and of ourselves is absolutely necessary in traveling either of them. In the primary course both information and discipline are aimed at; but since information is being constantly acquired by the natural exercise of our faculties in our situation, discipline must have the preëminence in what we may call the artificial education of man.

Second—In the second stage of the work, while discipline is continued, an enlarged scope of study must be opened, and enough learned of the various fields, both of science and literature, to expand our views of our own nature as well as of the universe, and at the same time afford the opportunity for developing the peculiar abilities and powers of the student, and enabling him to choose a congenial career in life, as well as to determine the direction in which his more continuous and higher cultivation should be pushed. If the ordinary business of life, and the special tastes and capacities of the youth for learning, may be made to coincide, so much the better; but if not, there is no occasion for discouragement, since we have seen how diverse careers and duties may be harmoniously blended in the experience of a single life.

Third—The last stage of the journey must be performed without the aid of schools and professors; but it does not, on that account, cease to be a part, and the most important part, of education. The cares of the family, the support and education of children, and the duties of good neighborhood and citizenship, will develop the business and social nature, while all the preceding discipline and acquired information should be only a foundation on which the superstructure of a symmetric intellectual and moral life are to be built. In this portion of life, which should be the most fertile in every good work, educational development is most commonly neglected. Most persons who have received even a moderate training in youth, preserve a vague purpose of continuing their mental culture; but it is too often a desultory and aimless general reading, without system or disciplinary power. I can not help believing that if the conception of education as the means of realizing the "complete" or ideal life were more thoroughly received and generally inculcated, it would do much to bring about the needed reform.

In one department only of our nature is this idea insisted upon as it should be. The ministers of religion understand the importance of a controlling purpose giving character and object to all human concerns, and they do not fail to keep before our eyes the ideal spiritual life toward which, with humble but steadfast faith, all should strive. We need a similar teaching in regard to our intellectual and æsthetic nature. The ideal must become not only a criterion of the worth of knowledge, but it should be a law, fully recognized as obligatory, that we are to be as constant and unfaltering in our efforts at progress toward it, as in our struggle for religious purity. If those intrusted with the education of our youth shall give due prominence to this thought, and seek to make it become a part of the mental nature of their pupils, it can not fail that a much larger number than heretofore will be fired by a noble zeal to make their life the continuous discipline and culture it ought to be, and to have the intellectual work of their mature years surpass that of their youth, as the master workman's performance surpasses that of the apprentice.

It is easy to see that the general view of the worth and objects of education which I have presented, is inconsistent with any narrow notion of the practical. All knowledge is of worth to him who would seek to know also its place in the infinite science which embraces all things. We can not afford to exclude literature, either ancient or modern, unless the study of man in the historic development of his character and ideas is of inferior importance to man. We can not exclude philosophy, for the human soul responds now as it did in ancient days to the mysterious power of the Delphic oracle: "Know thyself." We can not exclude history, for the more wisely and lovingly it is studied, the more truly does it appear to be what it has been so well called, "philosophy teaching by example." Neither can we afford to exclude the physical sciences or be driven into opposition to their study by their unwise advocates of the Spencer school, because they open to us the unnumbered marvels of the material universe, and powerfully train our faculties of observation and experimental reasoning.

With a generous stimulus applied to the love of learning and the "search after truth," we need have no fears that any of the utilities in practical life, which science can furnish or discover will be overlooked. A true catholicity in education will leave each student free to devote his life to whatever he finds himself best fitted to master, and the numbers devoted to different departments, under the influence of their mental tastes, will be found, like the law which governs the sex of those born into the world, to provide mysteriously, but surely, for all the true necessities of human progress.

So much of the work it is ours to do. All will not be fashioned to the same mold, when our educational systems have done their best. All may not be formed of the same clay, or originally intended for the same uses. But in this regard it is not for the clay to complain of the potter. To do our work, honestly and steadfastly, to learn the happiness of the most untiring industry when it is directed to a great end; to dignify the common uses of life by making them part of a more beautiful and complete whole; to become the most and best that such faculties as ours are capable of,—all this is possible for us and is the student's most solemn duty. As to the rest, resuming the figure of the potter's wheel, we may say with Robert Browning:

"But I need, now as then,
Thee, God, who moldest men,
And since, not even when the whirl was worst,
Did I — to the wheel of life
With shapes and colors rife,
Bound dizzily — mistake my end to slake thy thirst?
So, take and use thy work,
Amend what flaws may lurk,
What strain o' the stuff, what warpings past the aim!
My times be in thy hand,
Perfect the cup as planned,
Let age approve of youth, and death complete the same!"

[The above address is copied from the *Cincinnati Commercial.* The author's revision shows the following errors in the portion in our November issue: Page 400, line 8 from the bottom, for "idea" read *ideal*; p. 402, l. 17 from the top, for "in" read *and*; p. 402, l. 6 from the bottom, for "and" read *when.*—Ed. Monthly.]

Editorial Department.

An early number of our next volume will contain a fine steel portrait of Dr. A. D. Lord, with a sketch of his services in the cause of education. Dr. Lord was a pioneer in the work of school reform in Ohio, and his well-directed labors largely contributed to its success. He has removed from the State to take charge of the State Institution for the Blind at Batavia, N. Y.

We publish this month the first of a series of articles on the Phonic Method of Teaching Reading, by Mrs. J. H. Jones, a teacher in the public schools of Cincinnati. These articles will present the method as successfully used by the writer, and we commend them to the attention of all primary teachers. They will be followed by other practical articles, either contributed or editorial, on the teaching of reading in classes above the primer. Our observation leads us to believe that few teachers have any definite idea of a class drill in reading.

THE MONTHLY FOR 1869.

We began the current volume with the hope that it would close with a larger circulation than any of its predecessors. We are not disappointed. For several months past we have printed an edition of **4,000** copies, and we have only a few copies on hand. This increased circulation is gratifying evidence of the Monthly's increasing popularity. It has certainly never been more strongly or widely commended.

But we do not intend to rest satisfied with present success. On the contrary, our arrangements for the next volume warrant the expectation that it will reach still higher results. Our corps of contributors includes many of the ablest and most practical educational writers in the country, and their contributions will be devoted, even more largely than heretofore, to the discussion of questions of practical interest and importance to teachers and school officers. We feel that this assurance does not need to be backed up by an array of names. Suffice it to say, that our present excellent contributors will be reinforced by several other writers equally eminent as practical educators. We shall spare no pains to secure for our pages the most advanced views and the ripest experience of the country in school instruction and management.

We need not say to our readers that the MONTHLY will neither ride special hobbies nor run in any body's groove. It will discuss Object Lessons, Courses of Study, Corporal Punishment, the Coëducation of the Sexes, and all other live educational questions, not as a narrow partisan, but in a catholic spirit and as an earnest seeker for the truth. It will advocate measures of progress and reform without sweepingly condemning every thing that does not revolve in the orbit of its own views. Remembering that all human institutions are imperfect, its aim will be to improve rather than destroy.

Our increasing circulation in other States, especially in the West and South, shows that there is a demand for a vigorous and progressive Western School Journal. Several of these States can not, for some years, publish or sustain a first-class educational periodical. The MONTHLY will adapt itself to the larger field thus opened to it. This will be effected in part by enlarging the Miscellany to include a wider range of school intelligence—a change which will, we think, increase rather than lessen its value to Ohio readers.

Our next volume will, in brief, be as much better than its predecessors as our increased experience and facilities can make it. May we not confidently rely on the friends of the cause for a still larger circulation?

OUR INSTITUTE SYSTEM.

We have not the statistics before us but we think we are safe in saying that teachers' institutes have been held the present year in two-thirds of the counties of the State, and that their influence will reach directly at least one-fourth of the schools and indirectly a much larger number. The instructors employed have, as a general rule, been the most experienced and successful teachers in the several counties, and most of the county institutes have been conducted by the leading educators of the State. We have also observed with pleasure that increased attention has been given to professional instruction. These facts show that the institute system has already become a potent agency for the improvement of our schools.

But are our institutes as efficient as they ought to be? If not what can be done to make them more efficient and valuable? These are important questions, deserving of careful consideration.

At the outset it is proper to observe that there are two classes of institutes held in this State, to wit: County Institutes and Private Institutes. The former are conducted under the direction of a county teachers' association, and are supported largely from funds arising from examination fees, set apart for this purpose by law. These funds are paid over to the proper committee on the petition of at least *forty* resident teachers, who therein declare their intention to attend the institute, and are expended under the direction of the association. The examiners have no official control either of the institute or of the funds. The whole matter, including the selection and employment of instructors, is entrusted entirely to the teachers of the county, organized as an association. These county institutes constitute our institute system proper. They are established and regulated by law, are open to all teachers, and are *free* unless a tuition fee is imposed by the association.

In addition to the county institutes, there are held a few temporary normal schools or institutes under private control. They usually continue in session from four to six weeks, and are largely devoted to a review of the elementary branches.

These normal institutes, as they are commonly called, are an outgrowth of the old voluntary institute system, and they have been held in Ohio for many years. The first of which we have any knowledge, were conducted in connection with the normal schools at Lebanon and Hopedale. Their success caused others to be organized, the number increasing until from ten to fifteen are now held annually.

The professional success of these private institutes, as a class, has not been satisfactory. They are too often conducted by incompetent persons. The reviews are necessarily hurried, and are liable not only to be superficial, but to present improper models of school instruction. Sometimes they are not wholly free from the vice of special cramming as a preparation for an examination before the county examiners. We have at least heard such charges, and though made, in some instances, by persons living in glass houses, we have feared there might be some truth in them. When examiners conduct such reviews, and receive compensation in the form of tuition fees, they certainly afford rejected applicants and their friends an opportunity to censure, which is sure to be improved.

We are constrained to add that some of the most thorough normal institutes we have visited in the State, have been conducted by examiners, and we believe that institutes thus conducted will, as a class, compare favorably with those managed by other parties. Still we question the propriety of examiners engaging in such enterprises, and especially when they examine their own pupils.

But whatever may be true of these normal institutes, their shortcomings are not justly chargeable to the system of institutes established in 1864. They are private affairs, are supported by tuition charges, and are conducted by self-appointed instructors. They sustain the same relation to the regular institute system that private schools do to the public school system, and, as private enterprises, they present a limited field for quackery and sham. Their financial success is palpable evidence of an earnest demand in this State for normal instruction. What is needed is the establishment by the State of a thorough and efficient system of free normal institutes, largely professional in their character, to supplement the county institutes. The organization of one such normal institute in each of the ten judicial districts would provide teachers with that elementary professional training which they now seek, often in vain, in poorly appointed private enterprises. Besides such institutes would serve as models, and by their influence would greatly improve institute instruction throughout the State.

Until the State undertakes this work which it has so long neglected, there will be a demand for private normal institutes, and they will be held, with more or less of benefit to the schools. They are, notwithstanding their defects, accomplishing, on the whole, a good work.

In a future article we may consider the defects and needs of our county institutes.

SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

We have divided school incentives into two general classes, natural and artificial, and have briefly stated their distinctive characteristics. Natural incentives spring from the nature of the effort or acquisition, following success or attainment as its natural result, if not its necessary consequence. Artificial incentives are those substituted rewards or motives which are made the immediate end of study and conduct, thus taking the place of the higher rewards which flow from successful and right action.

We now propose to consider the relative worth and proper use of these two classes of incentives.

We think all will concede that natural incentives are intrinsically superior to artificial. They nourish and strengthen the higher principles of character and, at the same time, act through life, springing up spontaneously in the path of duty and success. If made potent in childhood, they usually remain potent in after life. Artificial incentives, on the contrary, are transient and treacherous. They allure in youth, but fail in life's needs and conflicts. The child always incited to duty by some prize, immunity or privilege, depends in vain on such helps in manhood. When school days are over, if not before, knowledge must be sought for its own sake or for its uses, and neither integrity nor virtue hold in their hands a bribe.

These facts not only indicate the superior worth of natural incentives, but they show the importance of their use in the instruction and control of children. The teacher should appeal to motives that have an abiding potency and value, and, through such motives, he should strive to quicken the pupil's sense of right and duty. Certainly, so long as natural incentives can be made effective in securing study and good conduct, they should be relied upon.

This suggests the proper use of artificial incentives. They are to be resorted to, if at all, as *temporary* expedients to lift up a pupil or a school to the plane of higher motives. A teacher placed in charge of a badly demoralized school, dismissed all pupils whose conduct was good, a half hour before the regular time for closing school. This was done at first each half day; then once a day; but as soon as she had the school well in hand, the practice was wholly dropped. We have seen whispering and tardiness checked in the same manner, the incentive of an early dismissal or a half holiday being used *to prepare the way* for better motives. It is evident that a dismissal before the close of school as a reward, will prove, for such a purpose, much more effective than a detention after school. But to use such means when natural incentives can be made effective, is needlessly to sacrifice the higher principles of moral training. Incentives intrinsically wrong are, of course, never to be used.

The true principle governing the use of incentives, we stated in our August number. The use of the lower should be temporary, and preparatory to those which are higher and nobler. Of two motives equally effective, the higher should always be placed before the pupil. There is a difficulty in carrying out this principle in large schools, owing to the great difference in the character of pupils. Motives effective with the majority may fail to control or impel the minority, or *vice versa*. In trying to obviate this difficulty, teachers are liable to make the serious mistake of placing low incentives before an entire school, in order to reach a few pupils. The true course is to grade incentives up to pupils, and not pupils down to incentives. Here as elsewhere, there must be a wise adaptation of means to condition, even at a sacrifice of uniformity.

Among proper incentives most liable to abuse are merit marks and tickets—incentives in very general use in our schools. The true design of the "Marking System", as it is technically called, is to give the pupil a definite and tangible *measure* of his success. To this end the character of his recitations and his conduct is marked daily on a numerical scale, and averages are made monthly, or oftener, showing his standing. The value of this record depends, of course, upon its accuracy. When it fails to indicate the pupil's actual success, it loses its historical character, and misleads. The same is true of tickets when bestowed as evidence of the teacher's favor rather than of the pupil's merit.

But the special abuse to which merit marks and tickets are subject, is the making of them the immediate end of the pupil's efforts. In some schools "per cents" are so magnified that they completely hide what they represent, and the pupils study and recite for them as if they were wages. Sometimes the attainment of a specified standard is rewarded by class rank, by a holiday, or some other privilege. The attention is thus diverted from the true ends of study; the pupil is tempted to cram, if not deceive; and the teacher to mark too high.

TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE COLLEGE SOCIETY AT MARIETTA.

In 1843, a society was formed at the East to aid Western Colleges and Theological Seminaries. It had its origin in the exigencies of Marietta, Western Reserve, Wabash, and Illinois Colleges, and Lane Theological Seminary; and these five were the first placed upon its list. The idea originated with Rev. Dr. Theron Baldwin, then a Trustee of Illinois College, and he has been the secretary of the society from the beginning. Fifteen institutions, reaching from Ohio to the Pacific, have been aided, nine of which are now off the society's list.

This anniversary, extending from Nov. 7th to Nov. 10th, was intended to be a re-union of these colleges, as well as a meeting of the society. Among the college gentlemen whom we met were Presidents Sprecher, Andrews, and Fairchild, of Ohio; Tuttle, of Indiana; Sturtevant, Blanchard, and Gulliver, of Illinois; Chapin and Merriman, of Wisconsin; and Magoun and Brooks, of Iowa: also, Professor Hewitt, of Michigan; Professor Butterfield, of Kansas; and Dr. Atkinson, of Oregon.

Hon. W. A. Buckingham, late Governor of Connecticut, and U. S. Senator elect, was the President of the occasion. Gov. B. is not only one of the most distinguished of our public men, but a most generous friend of Christian learning. Not long since he gave $25,000 to an Eastern institution.

Rev. Dr. Hopkins, President of Williams College, preached the annual sermon on Sabbath evening. He was introduced by President Andrews, who expressed his great gratification in welcoming the president from whom he received his degree in 1837, and who recommended him to the trustees of Marietta for the professorship of Mathematics in 1838. The sermon was one of very great ability. The influence of Christian Colleges upon national stability and prosperity was shown in the clearest manner.

On Monday evening addresses were made by Presidents Sturtevant, of Illinois College; Chapin, of Beloit; Tuttle, of Wabash; Andrews, of Marietta; Hon. W. P. Cutler, of Warren; Hon. A. C. Barstow, of Providence, R. I.; and Rev. Dr. Dexter, of Boston. Mr. Cutler gave a brief history of the Ordinance of 1787, which has done so much to mould the character of these great States of the North-west. Its provisions for freedom, for education, for religion, were the work of the men who organized the Ohio Company in New England in 1786, and formed the settlement at Marietta in 1788.

While the society was holding a business meeting Tuesday morning, the trustees of Marietta College commenced an effort to place that institution upon the financial basis to which its merits and its location as the Plymouth of the West, entitle it. Col. John Mills, of Marietta, pledged $10,000; Hon. Charles W. Potwin, of Putnam, $10,000; Hon. Wm. P. Cutler, of Warren, $5,000; and Benj. B. Gaylord, Esq., of Portsmouth, $2,500. Others of the trustees will do their share, and if the friends of the college will follow this noble example, the resources of Marietta will be largely increased. (We may say in parenthesis. that a day or two after this, Gen. A. J. Warner, of Marietta, pledged $5,000. Gen. W. was a teacher before the war, and so deserves special mention in our journal.)

It was the editor's good fortune to be present at the handsome entertainment given on Tuesday evening, after the meetings had closed, by Douglas Putnam, Esq., who is known by all the friends of Marietta College as one of its truest friends and largest donors. It was a fit place to meet such men as were gathered in his spacious rooms.

The influence of this anniversary will be excellent. Western men will be stimulated to greater effort, and the directors of the society return home rejoicing to see what a quarter-century has accomplished. They have met the presidents and professors of many colleges, and have become acquainted with Western trustees and other friends of higher education. They know that the choicest men of the West are devoted friends of our colleges.

MISCELLANY.

IF any of our exchanges or subscribers will return to us the July number of the MONTHLY, we will acknowledge its receipt by remitting 25 cents. The address should be written on the cover. We wish to procure fifty copies.

WE have printed 500 copies of ex-Gov. Cox's Oberlin Address in a separate pamphlet which we will send by mail at the low price of 10 cents a copy, or $1.00 a dozen. The friends of liberal culture should give it a wide circulation.

ON looking over the last two numbers, we see that several important changes in the location of superintendents and teachers have not been noted. This is due to the omission of the "Miscellany" in the September issue, when these changes were in mind, and the lack of both time and space to work up the contents of our drawer in the October and November issues. Hereafter we shall devote our August number to the proceedings of the Association, and thus avoid delay in publishing news items.

THE General Assembly convened November 23. The Governor submitted a brief message, recommending, among other measures, the early consideration and passage of the bill, now pending in the Senate, creating the office of County School Superintendent, and the payment of the traveling expenses of the School Commissioner. It is earnestly hoped that these recommendations may be promptly carried out. The large expenditure involved in rebuilding the Central Lunatic Asylum, recently destroyed by fire, ought not to prevent the adoption of liberal measures for the improvement of our schools.

CITY SUPERINTENDENTS' ASSOCIATION.—We call special attention to the meeting of this body to be held in Columbus on Tuesday, December 29th. The topics for discussion—announced in our August issue—are of great importance, and other questions relating to the educational interests of the State, will doubtless be considered. We hope to see a large attendance of the superintendents and principals of our graded schools.——A meeting of the Executive Committee of the Ohio Teachers' Association will be held on Monday, December 28th, at 3 o'clock. Both meetings will be held in the office of the State Commissioner of Common Schools.

NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.—The November number of the *Penna. School Journal*, edited by Hon. Thos. H. Burrowes, calls attention to the fact that Congress, near the close of its last session, provided for the discontinuance of the separate existence of this Department at the end of current official year, June 30, 1869, and the transfer of its affairs to the Department of the Interior, to be attended to by a clerk at a reduced salary. It attributes this adverse action to the present head of the Department, affirming that "his whole policy has been a mistake." The *Journal* heartily approved of the present Commissioner's appointment, and, until now, has fully and hopefully sustained his course. It pays a richly deserved tribute to his "high talents, great learning, and eminent services in the cause of popular education," but says it is compelled to acknowledge his failure, for which three reasons are assigned. The friends of the department are called on to rally in its support.

We learn from Washington dispatches that the Commissioner is there charged with neglect of official duty. Whatever may be true of the wisdom or practicableness of his plans, we believe that no executive officer at Washington has labored with more zeal and fidelity than Commissioner Barnard. He has battled too long and sacrificed too much in the great cause of education, to fail in devotion to the duties of such an office.

ADMISSION OF WOMEN TO COLLEGE.—The late rejection of the petition of twenty-three young ladies who applied for admission to Wabash College, has given rise to much discussion in the papers. The young ladies are not afraid of the young men who are ready to welcome them, and so they propose to besiege the college until the faculty hear their plea and surrender. As the college is a close corporation the siege promises to be a long one, unless the students make an attack from within. One course is easy. If the young ladies can not come in, the young men can go out. We have seen such things done; and, besides, the young men can handsomely show their pluck by applying for admission to some female college, and, in case of refusal, besieging it. Why should the young ladies be the only aggressors?——President Haven, of the Michigan State University, in his recent report, favors the admission of women to that institution. Last year he strongly opposed their admission, but, it seems, the arguments which had weight then are light now, and *vice versa.* The reader of these two reports vigorously advocating both sides of the same subject, has a peculiar sensation in the cranial territory assigned to the reasoning powers.

HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.—Before a proper relation can exist between the common schools and colleges of the country, there must be such a change in the system of instruction in one or the other as will make the studies of the colleges a continuation of those taught in the common schools. Or if there be imperfections in both,—and there is hardly any thing human that is perfect,—let each concede so much to the other, as will enable the student on leaving the high school, to enter at once, and without loss of time in going over studies already mastered, upon the usual college course. We conceive that such an arrangement could be effected, with very great advantage to both the highest and humblest educational institutions, and we think it would conduce more than any other one thing to promote the cause of education.—*Yale College Courant.*

A NOVEL ENTERPRISE.—We have received a copy of a little paper published monthly by the teachers and pupils of the Third Street Seminary, Steubenville, O. All the work—editing, type-setting, and printing—is done in the school building by young ladies who never before saw a type set or a sheet printed, and, what is better, the work is done in a very creditable manner. The name of the paper is the "Third Street Seminary Press", and the subscription price is 50 cents a year.

CLEVELAND.—At the beginning of the present school year three of the Grammar Schools were merged in others, thus reducing the number from ten to seven. The names of the male principals are—Brownell St. School, L. W. Day; Rockwell St., H. M. James; East St. Clair, A. S. Hardy; Hudson St., W. G. Fox; Mayflower St., W. S. Wood; Hicks St., A. G. Manson; Kentucky St., Alex Forbes—each receiving a salary of $1,600. The old Eagle St. School, West St. Clair, and Pearl St. are now respectively in charge of Miss H. S. Parsons, Miss Ada Bentley, and Miss M. B. Russell, who act as vice-principals.——The East High School has the following corps of teachers; Andrew Freese (Principal), salary $2,000; T. W. Hopkins, $1,600; C. Hotze, $1,600; F. B. Wilson, $1,200; Miss M. Atkins, $1,000; Miss E. G. Barritt, $700; Miss Fanny Beaumont, $700. The following are the teachers in the West High School: A. G. Hopkinson (Principal), $2,000; Miss P. F. Libby, $1,000; Miss

Bella Sayles, $700.——Two writing teachers are employed—A. P. Root at a salary of $1,500, and L. D. Brown at $1,200.——The Public School Library, in charge of L. M. Oviatt as librarian, has been removed to Northrop & Spangler's Block on Superior St. It contains 2,300 volumes, and the expenditure of $6,000, now raised for the purpose, will increase the number to 7,000 or 8,000 volumes.——To the above facts, kindly furnished us, we wish to add, that there is a great amount of life and activity in the schools, and they are making good progress. Supt. Rickoff is pushing oral instruction in the primary grades.

LANCASTER.—At the close of the last school year, Supt. Reinmund, Miss Becket' of the High School, and Mr. Knabenshue, of the South Grammar School, all resigned. Their places were filled respectively by the appointment of W. R. Spooner, Miss Holbrook, a graduate of Oberlin College, and Wm. H. Wolf. Recently Mr. Wolf resigned, and he is succeeded by J. H. Sampson, of the Concord Graded School, at a salary of $800. The Superintendent's report for the past month shows a good attendance—an average of 92 per cent.——The resignation of Miss Becket was caused by a diseased eye requiring non-use and medical treatment. The board of education deeply regretted her permanent withdrawal from the school, and, hoping to prevent it, tendered her a furlough for a few months, which she was unwilling to accept. Miss B. is one of the first lady teachers in the country, and her many friends will unite with us in the hope that she may soon be able to resume a calling in which she has been so eminently successful and useful.

RAVENNA.—The public schools are divided into six departments, with eight teachers. They enroll about 500 pupils, a considerable number residing outside of the village. The high school is in charge of Supt. W. P. Hussey, and Mr. H. H. Stevens has charge of the grammar school. Mr. S. has been for several years past the county auditor—and an excellent one, too—but his love for teaching has taken him back into the school-room, where he is always at home. The schools are making good progress.

FREMONT.—The report of Superintendent Ross, for the seven weeks ending Oct. 30, 1868, shows an enrollment of 918 pupils, and an average daily attendance of 699 —both a large increase—with 1,012 cases of tardiness. He urges the importance of more stringent regulations to check the evils of absence and tardiness, and asks for the co-operation of parents. The *Journal* states that the schools are in a very flourishing condition, and are under excellent management, with a competent corps of teachers.

SALEM.—Supt. Henkle publishes each week a table giving the number of pupils enrolled, average daily attendance, and per cent. of attendance in each department of his schools. The report for the ninth week (Oct. 19–24) shows no per cent. lower than 95, and three schools reach 98. In the report for the eleventh week (Nov. 9-14) 94 is the lowest per cent. and 98 the highest. These are high averages. Over 700 pupils are enrolled in the schools.

WAUSEON.—The schools of this growing town have recently been organized on the graded plan, and the new school building, erected at a cost of $14,000, is about ready for occupancy. Mr. R. Parsons has been appointed superintendent, and will do a good work.

NEW RICHMOND.—The *Clermont Courier* alludes to the flourishing condition of the schools of this village, in charge of Mr. J. C. Morris, and adds: "With an efficient board, and excellent principal, able assistants, and the finest school building in this section of the State, outside of Cincinnati, there is no reason why they should not flourish."

Tiffin.—The towers on the public school building have been completed; the blackboards, containing over four thousand square feet, have been covered with the Eureka slating, and, neither least in importance nor last in order of time, Supt. Kirkwood's salary has been raised from $1,500 to $1,800—every dollar of which he more than earns. The schools not only in the city but in the county are making good progress.

Indiana.—Hon. G. W. Hoss has resigned the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction to accept a professorship in the State University at Bloomington. He was an efficient officer. The Governor has appointed Prof. B. C. Hobbs, the Superintendent elect, his successor. Prof. Hoss continues to edit the *School Journal*. A new journal, to be called *The Indiana Teacher*, will be published at Indianapolis. The first number will soon be issued.——Joseph Moore, after a three years' service in North Carolina, returns to Earlham College.——The State Association meets at Richmond, Dec. 29. W. D. Henkle, of Ohio, delivers the annual address. Subject: *Mind and Matter.*

Personal.—B. B. Hall is in charge of the public schools of Wellsville—salary, $1,000.——Col. M. D. L. Buell has returned from Iowa, and is agent for Ingham & Bragg, Cleveland.——C. W. Cole is superintendent of the schools of Greenfield—salary, $1,000.—Dr. Thomas Hill has resigned the presidency of Harvard College.——T. E. Suliot is teaching in the Kent High School.

Miss Lula F. Boyle, a teacher in the public schools of this city, died very suddenly of heart disease, on the 31st of October. Her funeral was attended by her pupils, by all the teachers of the city, and by many other friends. She was an excellent teacher, an accomplished lady, and a devoted Christian. Her end was peace.

Errata.—In Mr. Henkle's Art., page 431, line 2 from bottom, for "36 or 56" read 36 *or* 86; p. 432, l. 26 from top, for "846" read 844. In Prof. Young's Art., page 428, line 22 from top, for "scaline" read *scalene*; p. 429, l. 18, for "prizes" read *friezes*.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES AND ASSOCIATIONS.

Kent.—The Portage County Institute held a five days' session at Kent, closing Oct. 3. Eighty-three teachers were in attendance. The instructors were T. E. Suliot, T. W. Harvey, J. F. Lukens, and E. E. White. The institute was also addressed by W. P. Hussey, Prof. Atwater, and Dr. Carroll. The evening addresses were given by Messrs. White, Atwater, Harvey, and Suliot. We were much pleased with the lessons given by Mr. Suliot, showing how the processes, rules, and principles of arithmetic may be educed from the pupil. The method was illustrated by the instruction of a class composed of some of the members of the institute. Mr. Harvey's instruction in English grammar and geography gave great satisfaction. Supt. Lukens presided, and made things "tick."

Jefferson.—A teachers' institute was held at Jefferson, Ashtabula county, Oct. 12-16, under the direction of H. U. Johnson, of Orwell Normal Institute. He was assisted by Prof. A. C. Alcott, Prof. J. Tuckerman, of Grand River Institute, and J. B. Corry, of Kingsville Academy. Our correspondent says they had a very fine session, though the attendance was small. Fifty-five teachers were present. It was agreed to hold a three days' session, beginning Jan'y 1, 1869.——The Orwell Normal Institute enrolled 180 students at the fall session, a majority of whom are preparing to teach.

Upper Sandusky.—A teachers' institute was held at this place, beginning Oct. 19 and continuing five days. J. C. Harper, of Bucyrus, was the principal instructor.

S. J. Kirkwood, of Tiffin, W. E. Crosby, of Lima, D. I. Foust, of Crestline, and J. H. Myers assisted,—Messrs. Kirkwood, Crosby, and Foust gave evening lectures, which were replete with sound, practical instruction. One hundred and two teachers were in attendance. We had a splendid time. I think the educational fires are beginning to shine in "Little Wyandot." Resolutions were passed thanking the instructors, approving of county school supervision, and the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY. I herewith send you the names of twenty-six subscribers. J. H. MYERS.

STEUBENVILLE.—The first teachers' institute held in Jefferson county for several years past, convened at Steubenville, Monday evening, Oct. 19th, and continued in session four days. Some eighty teachers were present. Capt. Wm. Mitchell, of Columbus, gave instruction in language culture, English grammar, arithmetic, and school management--a practical and valuable course; E. E. White in reading, geography, primary instruction, and theory and practice; and Mr. Dinsmore, of Zanesville, in penmanship. Messrs. Mitchell and White gave lectures each evening to good audiences. The exercises were interspersed with singing led by Mr. Schofield, of Steubenville, and considerable time was devoted to the "Budget", and the discussion of practical questions by the members. The labor of getting up and conducting the institute devolved on Supt. Buchanan, of the Steubenville schools, and to him its success is largely due. The *Herald* published an interesting abstract of the lessons and lectures.

WAUSEON.—The Fulton County Teachers' Institute was held at Wauseon from Oct. 26 to Oct. 31st. About 125 teachers were enrolled as members. The instructors were R. W. Stevenson, of Norwalk, Rev. G. W. Walker, and R. Parsons, Supt. Wauseon schools. Mr. Stevenson was the conductor, and the eminently practical character of his instructions gave the greatest satisfaction to all in attendance. There were evening lectures by Rev. H. M. Bacon, Gen. C. W. Hill, and Col. D. F. DeWolf, of Toledo, and R. W. Stevenson, of Norwalk. The teachers passed a resolution unanimously requesting the county examiners to raise the standard of qualification for certificates. No more successful institute has ever been held in Fulton county.

The above information was accompanied by the names of sixteen subscribers.

CANFIELD.—This institute, beginning Oct. 27, was the only one held in Mahoning county since 1862. The revival was mainly due to the Rev. Mr. Green, one of the County Examiners, and S. B. Rieger, Supt. of the Canfield schools. About eighty teachers were enrolled. The day-instructors were W. D. Henkle, of Salem, and Prof. Weston, of Hiram. A gentleman (name forgotten) from Youngstown gave an evening lecture on penmanship, as well as day-instruction part of the week. Two day-addresses were delivered by J. C. Gilchrist, County Superintendent of Washington Co., Penn., and one by Mr. Butler, of Poland, one of the County Examiners. Evening lectures were delivered by Pres. Errett and Prof. Hinsdale, of Alliance College, and Rev. Mr. Green. We received twenty-seven subscribers with the assurance that "the institute was a grand success."

SALEM.—*Friend White:* We had a rousing institute in Salem, the week beginning Nov. 2. One hundred names were enrolled. The evening lectures were by Prof. M. C. Stevens, Prof. A. R. Benton, of Alliance College, and Isaac Errett, Pres. of Alliance College. One evening was devoted to a reunion and exercises in gymnastics by twenty little misses in costume, who had been trained by Miss Lue Semans, teacher in the eighth grade of the Salem Union School. The day lectures were by W. D. Henkle, M. C. Stevens, J. B. Strawn, all of Salem, and Prof. A. Schuyler, of Berea.

The schools of Wellsville adjourned for the institute, and the Superintendent, Mr. Hall, a live teacher, came with all his teachers save one. Mrs. Haas, author of Haas's Grammar, and Superintendent of the schools in Columbiana, was present with her teachers. Mr. Smiley, Superintendent of the schools in New Lisbon, was present with a part of his teachers.

On the enclosed slip I send a list of twenty-two subscribers for the MONTHLY.

Yours, W. D. HENKLE.

TIFFIN.—Our county institute commenced Nov. 9th, and continued during the week. It was a decided succes. One hundred and forty teachers were in attendance. Prof. A. Schuyler was the principal instructor, assisted by C. C. Nestlerode, S. J. Kirkwood, and Geo. Gassman. Evening lectures were delivered by Lieut.-Gov. Lee Prof. Good, Rev. Mr. Criley, Prof. Schuyler, and C. C. Nestlerode. A good week's work was done. Resolutions were passed in favor of raising the standard of qualifications of teachers, of county superintendency, of the MONTHLY, etc.

Last winter, township associations, meeting once in two weeks, were sustained in a few townships. This winter we hope to have one in every township. They do a good work.

A goodly number of the teachers in attendance were already subscribers to the MONTHLY. Enclosed please find the names of *forty* subscribers and a draft for fifty dollars to pay for the same. S. J. K.

MARIETTA.—The teachers of Washington county had the credit of the largest institute held in the State last year, and we think they stand at the head this year. The remembrance of last year forbade a refusal of the invitation to be present this year—Nov. 10–14. We were assisted by Prof. Geo. R. Rossiter, of Marietta College, who gave an instructive course of lectures on the teaching of arithmetic. The institute was also briefly addressed by Rev. Geo. H. Atkinson, of Oregon, Pres. Andrews, ex-Auditor Bundy (on the school statistics of the couny), M. D. Follet, Esq., Rev Mr. McMasters, Rev. Mr. Wakefield, and J. D. Phillips. The "Budget" was an interesting feature. Many of the teachers participated in the discussion of the practical questions thus called out. Secretary Phillips's report closes thus: "The exercises of the institute were, from beginning to end, of the highest character and exceedingly interesting. It is the opinion of all, that this has been the best and most profitable session ever held in the county. The attendance was large. Two hundred teachers enrolled their names. The schools of the county can not fail to be greatly benefited by these meetings." The MONTHLY received thirty-three subscribers.

GREENE COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—A meeting of this association was held at Jamestown on Saturday, Oct. 25. There were present between thirty and forty teachers, besides a goodly number of our citizens. Essays were read by Prof. Ford, of the Xenia Female College, and Mr. Ellis, of the Cedarville schools, both of which were well received. We had a lecture from Mr. Peasley, of your city, upon penmanship, one upon reading by Prof. Ormsby, of Xenia, and other exercises appropriate to such a meeting. We propose to hold other meetings in different parts of the county, and hope by this means to awaken a deeper interest in the subject of education. J. P. S.

HAMILTON COUNTY ASSOCIATION.—The best meeting of our association that we have yet had was held at Curran & Kuhn's Academy, Nov. 14th. Mr. Norris, of Newtown, gave a lesson on teaching arithmetic. Miss Duganne, of the Cincinnati Normal School, followed with a clear and admirable lesson on the phonic method of teaching reading and spelling, and Mr. Samuel F. Thompson gave an address on the duties and responsibilities of teachers. The exercises closed with a few words from Supt. Hancock. The proceeds of the meeting in your interest are eight subscribers whose addresses I enclose. U. T. C.

BOOK NOTICES.—We find that we have no space left for book notices—a result we much regret, since several new works, worthy of attention, are on our table.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

SILLIMAN'S PRINCIPLES OF PHYSICS. Philadelphia: Theodore Bliss & Co.

HARKNESS'S INTRODUCTION TO LATIN COMPOSITION. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1868.

MARK'S FIRST LESSONS IN GEOMETRY. New York: Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co. 1868.

DALTON'S PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1868.

QUACKENBOS'S MENTAL ARITHMETIC, and QUACKENBOS'S ELEMENTARY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

COX'S MANUAL OF MYTHOLOGY. New York: Leypoldt & Holt.

CAPRON'S SCHOOL LYRICS. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1868.

NEW EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS.

THE NATIONAL NORMAL: An Educational Monthly based on the Principles of the South-Western Normal School, Lebanon, Ohio. Published by R. H. Holbrook, Cincinnati, Ohio.

MOUNT AUBURN INDEX: An Advocate of the Education of Girls and Young Women in Female Seminaries. Published by J. H. White, Cincinnati, Ohio.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION: A Professional and Official Organ for Missouri. Published by J. B. Merwin, St Louis.

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For Twenty Subscribers,

The EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY one year and either of the books named above.

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American Journal of Education one year; or *Harper's Weekly*; or either of the monthly magazines.

For Thirty Subscribers,

Webster's National Pictorial Dictionary ($6), or Brown's Grammar of English Grammars.

For Forty-Five Subscribers,

Webster's Unabridged Quarto Dictionary ($12).

N. B. The number of subscribers required to secure the above premiums, must be sent within three months after the first subscribers are received. Persons desiring premiums will please say so.

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